The Nation.

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The Week.

The spectacle of 50,000 operatives in New England cotton mills confronting a 10 per cent. reduction of wages is not a cheerful one for the holiday season, and it furnishes the occasion for a great deal of very serious discussion. Such a cut-down would attract no little attention from the general public at any time, and it cannot fail to provoke an animated controversy as to the influence of legislation in the matter, coming as it does so soon after the passage of a tariff law which was vouched for as the promoter of prosperity. There is no doubt whatever that other influences than the tariff have been the controlling factors in causing action which the manufacturers would avoid if they possibly could, but the Manchester *Union* points out one little considered effect of such legislation which has long been operative. It declares with a conviction which seems to be born of knowledge, that "for years New England cotton-spinners have hidden behind a protective tariff, and by its aid have been able to make large profits out of poor goods, poor work, and antiquated, wasteful methods of business"; whereas the time has at last come when they find their market invaded by Southern rivals against whose superior natural advantages no tariff can be framed. Dependence upon the tariff has really weakened the New England manufacturers, and they must now face a new situation without that confidence and readiness which is cultivated by self-reliance.

It is very significant that the labor organizations of the country are throwing their influence against the annexation of Hawaii. An earnest protest against the scheme was recently made by this element in California, and since then the American Federation of Labor has shown that workingmen throughout the land sympathize in this respect with those on the Pacific Coast. The Federation adopted a resolution disapproving of annexation on the ground that it "would be tantamount to the admission of a slave State, the representatives of which would necessarily work and vote for the enslavement of labor in general"; urging the Senate to reject the treaty, and take such other steps as may be necessary to maintain amicable relations with Hawaii; and providing that the executive council shall present these views to Congress, and, if necessary, to the President. Such a pronunciamiento from such a source will have much weight with politicians who have no pronounced convictions on the subject, especially with the members of the House, if the treaty shall fail and the scheme shall be pushed by joint resolution. A Representative who sees no particular reason for annexing Hawaii anyway will easily be persuaded to oppose the project if "organized labor" in his district is ready to fight a Congressman who favors the creation of what it considers likely to be "a slave State."

Secretary Gage has written a letter to Mr. Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, in reply to some silly resolutions passed by that body at its meeting in Nashville, declaring their opposition to the "Gage financial bill," the effect of which, they say, would be to "rivet the gold standard on the people of the country and perpetuate its disastrous effects in every form." The Secretary alludes first to the fact that the gold standard has been riveted on the country for more than sixty years, and that it would be more to the purpose to show how it has been disastrous than to denounce people who think that it has been beneficial. Mr. Gage declines to be put in a category different from that of his fellow-citizens generally, including wage-workers, because he happens to hold an economic opinion different from that held by this Nashville meeting. He insists that the standard of value which is best for all the people is the best for himself, so that the only real question to be considered is whether these Nashville delegates, or the whole Federation of Labor, is more likely to be right in its economic opinion than Mr. Gage. Not arrogating to himself any superiority in this respect, although experience and training might give him some claim of that sort, he affirms that majorities cannot decide what is best in matters of finance, since the opinions of any mass of men cannot be superior to those of the wisest man among them. And so he unhorses the Gompers crowd completely if we can suppose that they were ever horsed, and he does this without using a hard word or indulging in the smallest sarcasm.

A brief speech made by Senator Hoar of Massachusetts just before the holiday recess deserves more attention than it has received. The old question had been again raised whether alcohol used in the arts ought to be taxed about 1,300 per cent., as now, and the suggestion that this tax should be removed had brought out the fact that such a change would probably decrease the revenues about $10,000,000 a year. Mr. Hoar pointed out that here was a class of manufacturers engaged in a most beneficent industry who are likely to be driven out of their foreign business—at any rate to have it largely curtailed—because, almost alone of the manufacturing industries of this country, they are taxed 1,300 per cent. on their material; and he maintained that, "when we confront that condition of things, we are entitled to have some other reasons than a statement that we want the money." He proceeded to show that an additional tax of a dollar a barrel on beer would remove all the financial trouble in the matter of deficit, and that the brewing industry could easily stand the added tax. He added this frank confession of why the tax will not be laid:

> "We do not dare to compel that industry to pay a reasonable and proper tax, because we are afraid of the political power the brewers will exert, determining the political power in this country between different political parties."

When the dispatches from Havana and Madrid speak of setting up immediately the new autonomous government in Cuba, it is important to understand just what is meant. It is not meant that the farce of a popular election is at once to be gone through, nor that any simulacrum of parliamentary government is to be set up. It is only a temporary and transitional rule that is to be instituted. This is based upon one of the supplementary articles of the plan of autonomy itself. It provides that the Governor-General, whenever he thinks the moment opportune, may appoint, with the consent of the home Government, the members of his cabinet, and "with them conduct the government of Cuba until the establishment of the insular parliament." Doubtless no other approach to the form of autonomy could be made, with the island distracted and ravaged as it now is; but it should be understood that it is autonomy in its lowest terms that is to be tried first.

Great Britain has refused to coerce Canada, at the request of the United States (or, rather, at that of John W. Foster), into discontinuing pelagic sealing. Lord Salisbury informs our Ambassador that England has very little direct interest in the affair, and that, as the Canadians who are interested are unwilling to enter into any such arrangement, he should not be justified in agreeing to the proposals of the United States. Except making another face at England, we do not see that we have any remedy. We can forbid our own citizens to take seals on the high seas, but if we want to get the Canadians to stop it we must make it an object to them to do so—that is, we must agree to a general commission to settle all differences, including Dingleyism, as Sir

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Wilfrid Laurier proposed. As for putting an end to pelagic sealing by Americans, it is high time we set about it if we may believe Mr. Hitt's awful stories about renegade American sealers.

There seems to be no reason to doubt that, as a result of the proceedings of the commission to settle the Bering Sea claims, lately sitting in Boston, the damages we shall have to pay the Canadians will be at least $500,000. This is only what was to have been expected. It is only what was said by responsible Senators and Representatives when Congress rejected with contumely Secretary Gresham's arrangement to settle the whole thing out of hand for a lump sum of $425,000. The proper committees in both houses advocated that settlement. It would be speedy and, being a compromise, it would certainly be cheaper than an award made according to strict legal right. But the headstrong House, under the spurring of Mr. Hitt, refused to vote the money. The sum was too large; some of it would go to renegade Americans (Oh, Liberty and the Eagle!); anyhow, we didn't have to pay it yet; even if we had to pay more in the end, we should have had the pleasure of making the Canadians wait, and have kept up our reputation of being bad losers and ugly customers in international quarrels. What perhaps most influenced the House was Mr. Hitt's assertion that our laws forbade pelagic sealing, and how then could we pay damages to Americans masquerading as Canadians? That no such law existed, save in the statute-book of his imagination, he has himself now had to confess by bringing forward and passing such an enactment in the present Congress. So he has learned something; but it must be said that when it costs the country $75,000 to $100,000 to educate one Congressman about one law, free schools are not what they seem.

Opinions continue to differ as to who caused the great advance in wheat this year. Some time ago, when prices were moving up on the eve of last year's Presidential election, Mr. Bryan explained that the tricky Money Power was doing it all, so as to delude the farmers into voting for the Republican party. The chairman of the Pennsylvania Republican committee boldly affirms that the thirty or forty-cent rise this season was merely a Christmas present of the Republican Administration to the Pennsylvania farmers. On the other hand, Mr. L. Z. Leiter of Chicago says his boy did it—that at any rate the youngster has added fifteen cents a bushel to the world's price of wheat, and is "a benefactor of the agricultural industries of the country to that extent." We must confess our inability to discriminate between these rival claimants—that is, if they may properly be called rivals. Mr. Bryan's theory is still available, of course, and that profound economist and statesman, we presume, regards the pending discussion as confirmation of his own views of 1896. The Republican party is again the end, and young Mr. Leiter, representing, of course, the Money Power, is the means. What puzzles us, however, is the motive either of the party or of the Power in advancing wheat at this stage of the game. The elections of 1897 are over; why, then, waste resources now? Why not rather wait until, say, October, 1898, and then try the brilliant *coup de main* of a fifty-cent advance in wheat before election day?

The solid legal bulwark which Platt has erected around his machine was strengthened by an additional court decision last week. A motion for an injunction against one of his district primaries, on the ground that the legal requirements had not been observed by the Platt managers of it, was denied by Judge Beekman, who held that, under the decision of the Court of Appeals, which we have quoted recently, the matter was one with which the courts could not interfere, the regularly constituted party authorities having absolute power to determine such matters. That is to say, under the election laws of the State, the party machine is the final court of appeals in all questions relating to primaries and conventions, and since Platt is absolute boss of his party machine, he is himself the fountain of its primary law. The absurdity of attempting a reform of his primaries by going into them is too obvious to need comment. Reputable Republicans have become so generally convinced of it that not a man of them has been deluded into those primaries this year, and for the first time since he was boss Platt stands alone with his own kind. This is a great step in advance, whatever may be the result of the present very formidable effort to create an opposition organization.

There seems to be no doubt that the incoming Croker administration has made up its mind to attempt to get possession of the Board of Education almost immediately after taking office. Its legal advisers have found what they consider a loophole in the new charter through which they can enter upon their scheme. In one section of the charter, that relating to the Mayor's power of removal, it is expressly stipulated that he shall not have power to remove members of the Board of Education during the first six months of his term, the period in which he is permitted to remove all other heads of departments. This stipulation is conclusive evidence of the intent of the framers of the charter to have this board continued without sudden change in its complexion. The Tammany seekers for "places" have discovered in another section, that relating to the composition of a new school board for the enlarged city, a phrase which they hope will enable them to get rid of seven members of the present New York board, and have Mayor Van Wyck put as many good Tammany men in their places, thus giving Tammany a majority. This phrase is, "The Board of Education, *as constituted prior to the passage of this act.*" The Tammany contention is that the seven members appointed by Mayor Strong since the passage of the act on May 5 last, will be not legally in office under the new city government, since they cannot be said to be a part of the board as constituted on May 5. It is an obvious quibble, but Tammany proposes to take its chances on having it sustained by the courts. The fact that it is able to make it, is the first notable instance we have had of the slipshod workmanship of the new charter. We shall have more of these as time advances, for the instrument is full of contradictions and inconsistencies which will furnish a fruitful field for litigation.

Mr. Croker's determination to have a club with nothing but simon-pure Tammany Democrats in it is commendable. He says he does not enjoy himself in the society of Democrats with Mugwump tendencies, and, that being the case, he ought to supply himself with a club free from such annoying persons, especially as he is willing and able to pay all the necessary expenses of obtaining select society. What he has in mind clearly is the establishment of a Croker court in this city, on the lines of the one which has given him so much genuine enjoyment at Lakewood. It will come high, but he must have it. The existing club upon which he has fixed his favor has $200,000 of debt, and was recently thinking of closing up and selling out. Of the debt, Croker says, as Webster said of his debt, "Let it be paid!" Unlike Webster, however, he will see to it that the money is forthcoming. The club-house was said to be too small. "Put three or four stories on top of it," says the King. The membership is not large enough to pay running expenses. "Increase it to 1,000 or 1,500," says the King. These things were said one day, the next the thing was done. Tammany men are falling over one another in their eagerness to get into the court club-house, to help pay its debt, and to aid in lifting its roof. "We shall have," says one of them, "the finest cuisine in the city." Nothing is said about the bar, but it should be the longest in the city, even if the club-house has to be deepened as well as heightened. The statesmen of the court must have agreeable lounging-room while discussing the science of government.

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The municipal elections in Massachusetts, which have strung along through the month and ended with the voting in Boston on December 21, have been characterized by an unusual relaxation of party bonds. A Governor of the State was chosen in November, but whether a city went Republican or Democratic then had little to do with the way it would go in the choice of a Mayor in December. In many places, citizens' candidates were put in the field on purely local issues, and these issues were the only ones which cut any figure in the canvass. Boston reversed its position, so far as national politics entered into the contest, between early November and the 21st of December, a plurality for the Republican candidate for Governor seven weeks before being supplanted by a plurality of about 4,000 for the Democratic Mayor, Josiah Quincy, who was running for reëlection. The Republicans had a good candidate, and the hopes which they based upon the success of their party last month were strengthened by an attempted division of the Democrats through the nomination of a silver man. This candidate was a loud-mouthed politician, who drew great crowds of apparently sympathetic hearers whenever he spoke, but he polled less than 3,000 votes, as against over 40,000 for Mr. Quincy. Another proof is thus afforded of the deceptiveness of large audiences and noisy "enthusiasm."

Foreign trade is now the life of England, and must be protected and fostered at all hazards. Though not so immediately vital to Russia, with her vast territory to draw upon for supplies, it is yet no doubt mainly a question of trade with her, too, in the Chinese embroilment. Her aims are partly military and strategic, to be sure, but her railroad interests in Mantchuria, the rapid pushing of Russian merchants into North China, the concessions Russian subjects are obtaining for mining and for exploiting natural resources in every conceivable way—all point to commercial expansion rather than military glory or the acquisition of more territory as the main object. Germany frankly confesses that her seizure of Kiao-Chau Bay is for purposes of trade. The trading interests of France in South China are what has started the French men-of-war from Toulon. The Jingoes in this country who have souls so very far above trade, ought to take heart when they see four fleets put to sea purely in the interests of commerce.

This is undoubtedly the only aspect of the threatened partition of China which directly concerns the United States. We have treaty privileges and trade relations in China which it is the business of the State Department to see that no readjustment of Chinese affairs shall impair. With that our duty in the matter begins and ends. It is not for us either to protest against the seizure of Chinese territory or to prevent it. If our treaties are taken over intact, as they should be, by any Power assuming sovereignty in China, that is all we need ask. Incidentally, we may be led to see the reasonableness of Japan's request that we should take over her treaty with Hawaii, if we annexed that country and extinguished her sovereignty. We observe that Senator Morgan, who was ready to snap his fingers at the Japanese contention, now proposes to make war on all Europe unless our similar contention in China is respected. The feelings of the Chinese in all this, of course, have nothing to do with the case. They are not even to be given their choice of the way they will be cut up. All that is expected of them is to be still, and send in immense orders for foreign goods. They may plead poverty. They may say that three yards of cotton cloth per capita is enough to satisfy their wildest dreams of luxury. No matter for that; they are there to trade like fury, and trade they must, or else the desires and expectations of four powerful European nations will be disappointed, which would be absurd.

An address was delivered by the Rt. Hon. Leonard H. Courtney before the Royal Statistical Society in London on the 14th inst. on "Jevons's Coal Question, Thirty Years After." Thirty years or more ago Prof. Stanley Jevons published a book entitled 'The Coal Question,' which created no little excitement at the time, affirming that English manufacturing and commercial supremacy was due mainly to her coal deposits; that these deposits were exhaustible, and that they would probably be so far reduced within a century that the commercial supremacy which Great Britain then enjoyed would cease. He did not say that the mines would be exhausted or the country ruined, but that her commercial superiority would come to an end. No matter what might be done in the way of new inventions, in which other nations would share equally, the supremacy of England would depart with the cheapness and abundance of her coal. The subject of Mr. Courtney's discourse was a review of Prof. Jevons's treatise and a comparison of facts then existing with those now known. Thirty of the one hundred years within which Prof. Jevons believed that the end of British supremacy would come, have passed. Do we find any indication that his predictions are in the way of fulfilment? At the time when he wrote, the output of British coal mines (then 100,000,000 tons per annum) was increasing at the rate of 3½ per cent. per annum. If the rate of increase should continue till the year 1896, it would reach 278,000,000 tons. But in fact it was only 195,000,000 tons. Jevons did not say that it would continue to increase at the former rate, but that, notwithstanding all that science and invention might do to economize its use, there would still be some increase. The output seems to have nearly doubled in thirty years. Yet the money price of coal has not increased since Jevons wrote, but has fallen from 8s. 9d. to 7s. 2d. per ton. In some coal fields (notably in Shropshire, Cheshire, Staffordshire, Worcestershire, and Gloucestershire) there has been a decrease of output.

"The source of great danger to our industrial supremacy which Jevons detected lay in the United States," says Mr. Courtney. What do the statistics of coal production show? In the year when Jevons wrote, the output here was 24,000,000 tons. In 1896 it was 170,000,000 tons, or only 25,000,000 tons less than England's. The price at the pit's mouth in England was 6s. 6d.; in the United States it was the equivalent of 4s. 8d. Still more was Jevons concerned with the iron trade of Great Britain. "Expanding as it does," he said, "the iron manufacture must soon burn out the vitals of the country, and it is possible that there are those now living who will see the end of the export of crude iron." The maximum of British exports of iron of all sorts was reached in 1882 (4,354,000 tons). In 1896 it was 3,550,000 tons, although the decline of export was accompanied by a decline of price. The production of pig iron in the United States now exceeds that of Great Britain in the ratio of 6 to 5, while our production of steel is double that of Great Britain. In fact, England is now a considerable importer of steel from this country. These facts point to an early dispute in neutral markets by the United States in the supply of all kinds of iron, and after that of other things as well. Mr. Courtney considers at some length the question what will the English people do, or what will happen to them, when their commercial supremacy passes away. One thing must happen: population cannot increase at the same rate as heretofore. There will be more emigration, perhaps more deaths, certainly fewer births. There will be a transition of industries, the nature of which cannot be predicted. Yet Mr. Courtney concludes that "the constant progress of invention, the increasing facilities of transport, and the progressive subdivision of labor all tend to make the conditions of existence easier; and it may be found possible to support without difficulty, after a decline in our mining and manufacturing supremacy, a population which had come into existence under the impulse of a prosperity which will have waned if it has not entirely passed away."

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TERMS OF CUBAN AUTONOMY.

The full Spanish text of the new home-rule constitution for Cuba has at last reached this country, and its details do not in all respects bear out the telegraphed summary. As Congress and the country, at President McKinley's suggestion, are now waiting to see if Cuba will accept this autonomous government, and if it will bring peace to her distraught inhabitants, and as, therefore, the question of peace or war between Spain and the United States may turn on the terms of this proposed Cuban home rule, it is of obvious importance to know what those terms are.

A defect, or danger, in the form of this grant of autonomy at once confronts the reader. It is made by royal decree, bearing date November 25, 1897. This is a legal procedure when the Cortes are not sitting, but it requires the subsequent approval of the Cortes. But this approval may not be given, and then the whole edifice would fall to the ground. This peril is recognized in the expository portion of the document, when Prime Minister Sagasta regrets the necessity of resorting to the royal decree, but expresses the hope that public opinion will support him, and that "the sanction of the Cortes" will be given in due time. If the plan works well, if the Liberals can keep their heads above water, the sanction will no doubt be forthcoming when the Cortes are summoned; but if not, not. It would also appear that the Cortes retain the right at any time to repeal or amend the Cuban Constitution at their own pleasure. At the outset, therefore, one sees how far the grant of home rule to Cuba is from being secure and unconditional. It is, in fact, very much like our boasted home rule in New York city—subject to constant interference, or even absolute repeal, by the Legislature.

Nor can one read far in the provisions of the decree without seeing that the sovereignty of Spain in Cuba is intended to mean something widely different from the sovereignty of England in Canada. It is to be not only an acknowledged sovereignty, but an active and controlling sovereignty. This is, in truth, frankly avowed by Sagasta. His first concern, he declares, has been to draw a constitution which should "affirm and strengthen the bond of sovereignty." The "central authority," he adds, has been "in no wise lessened or weakened." Inspection of the chapters relating to the colonial legislature, judiciary, and finance will show that this confidence is not misplaced.

First of all comes the enormous power conferred upon the Governor-General, who is to be named by the home Government. He has the right to summon, to adjourn, or to dissolve the Colonial Parliament. He has a suspensory veto over its legislation. He has in his hands all the patronage of the public service. He is Commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and has absolute control even of the police. He has the power of naming life members in the Upper Chamber, or "Council of Administration." He has the right to propose laws in the Colonial Parliament. He has the right and duty, in certain specified emergencies, to make himself dictator, and to govern the island without reference to the laws passed by the Colonial Parliament.

As if this were not enough, care has been taken in the composition of the Colonial Parliament to make sure that it shall never escape from Spanish control. The House of Representatives is to be composed of members elected by universal suffrage, one for each 25,000 inhabitants. But of concurrent powers with this chamber is the Council of Administration, numbering thirty-five members. Of these, eighteen are to be elected by a limited suffrage, and seventeen are to be appointed by the Governor-General. But the seventeen are to be life members, while the eighteen are to go out, one-half every five years, or in entirety whenever the Governor-General thinks fit to dissolve the Council. When one takes in the fact that this body, so controlled, has as much authority in legislation, even in financial legislation, as the House of Representatives, a curiously hollow echo seems to make itself heard in Cuban autonomy.

Further to buttress Spanish supremacy, the control of the judiciary is entirely reserved to the home Government. This is highly important, because all the conflicts of interpretation, all the disputes about rights and privileges, under the new Constitution, are to be referred to the tribunals; and these are to be exclusively filled with Spanish judges. The right to make treaties of commerce affecting Cuba is also reserved to the home Government. In form, the Colonial Parliament is to have the right to enact a Cuban tariff, but in effect this grant is so hedged about in ways already indicated, and by special provisions requiring duties to discriminate in favor of Spanish products, that it really amounts to little or nothing. As for the public debt, including the present war debt, its apportionment between Cuba and Spain is to be made wholly by the Spanish Cortes.

In the face of these critical features of the home-rule scheme for Cuba, it is useless to discuss the amount of local control of local affairs that really is given, or seems to be given. The great essentials of government are kept strictly within the grasp of Spain; the rest may be a pretty plaything, but it does not count. Señor Moret, the Minister for the Colonies, who is supposed to have drawn this Cuban Constitution, is a man who has lived in England and has made a study of English colonial legislation. References to British examples of colonial government appear in the expository part of his work. But he puts aside English models in favor of a form which is "characteristic of the system of Spain." There is his fatal vice. Despite what he himself calls the "immense calamities (*immensas tristezas*) of our colonial history," he adheres to the system which has been their chief cause, and offers a form of autonomy which, even if put forward in perfect good faith, even if operated with the best intentions, could prove only a mockery and a source of fresh disaster to the Cubans.

SOUTHERN CURRENCY OPINIONS.

We have already commented on the bankers' convention held at Atlanta, Ga., on the 15th of the present month, and have expressed the belief that it would prove potent for good in the coming contest for sound money. Our belief was based on the fact that the banking fraternity in the South has never been exposed to any rancorous animosity among the people of that section such as is said to exist against the same class in the trans-Mississippi region, but is respected and deferred to in a marked degree by people in other walks of life. This fact has been corroborated by the tone of the Southern press since the convention adjourned. Among the comments which have fallen under our notice, we select those of two characteristic newspapers, the Macon *Telegraph* and the Atlanta *Constitution*. But before examining them we will advert once more to the ideas advanced by the convention itself. It is true that nothing was said about the single gold standard, but, on the other hand, nothing was said about silver at 16 to 1; and, since everybody in the South is supposed to be dying for this, the latter omission must be considered tantamount to condemnation. The whole drift and purport of the resolutions looked to the improvement of the currency, and the final settlement of it by business instead of political methods, by banknotes instead of Government notes, by commercial instead of legislative action. "Take the banking business out of politics; take the Government out of the banking business." Nothing could be more practical or less ambiguous than these two demands. "Avoid the expense and dangers attendant on Government issues by the retirement and cancellation of the greenbacks and Treasury notes of 1890, by the substitution of banknotes." Such a declaration five years ago would have taken the breath away from all Southern politicians, with two or three exceptions. It would, we are obliged to confess, make many Northern ones gasp to-day.

To our surprise, we find an article in the Atlanta *Constitution*, more than a column long, under the caption "A Long Step Forward," commending the action

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of the convention as a whole. Although it does not approve of the retirement of the greenbacks, it considers that a minor matter in comparison with the reform of banking methods by the substitution of circulating notes based on assets of the banks instead of Government bonds. This it calls "the Democratic plan of currency reform," a claim which we shall not call in question if it supplants the Bryan plan of silver at 16 to 1.

The Macon *Telegraph* adopts a more positive tone. It says that the bankers' convention represented the business interests of the entire South, and that there is practical unanimity among those interests in sustaining the Atlanta resolutions. The only opposition to them is among the unthinking classes and the politicians who pander to them. These men, although they make more noise than any others, do not represent the moving forces of the South. The following paragraph from its article is full of encouragement:

"The report is abroad that the South is all on fire for free-silver repudiation. The truth is, among the intelligent business classes—among those who have no political aspirations or inclination—the man on fire for free silver can scarcely be found. No; the man on fire for free silver—if he is well informed—is apt to be on fire with a consuming desire for an office. We say this with due regard and consideration for that large class of editors and other people who have struggled to acquiesce for the sake of regularity, and who have at last nearly convinced themselves that perhaps it will be best to accept this rather than to fly to other evils."

The Galveston *News*, another important Southern journal, welcomes the Atlanta resolutions, which, in the opinion of its editors, "show that banking as a science must be founded in America as in other commercial nations upon the same fundamental principles, which have no reference to the rise or fall of political parties."

The significance of these comments resides in the fact that it is not impossible to detach the Democratic party of the South from the free-silver issue and bring it back to its ancient moorings, in which case it would have the fairest prospects of success in the next Presidential election. When the party planted itself on the bastard issue of "16 to 1," it threw away the States of New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Maryland in order to grasp the votes of the trans-Missouri States. Perhaps New York would have been lost in 1896 in either event, seeing that the panic of 1893 and the subsequent hard times had taken place during a Democratic administration. But the situation is considerably altered now. The prevailing ideas of the panic and hard times of Mr. Cleveland's term of office have changed. The fact that those troubles had their origin in the Harrison administration, and merely took effect, like a dose of slow poison, in the succeeding term, is now pretty well understood and appreciated. Add to this the unpopularity and brazenness of the Dingley tariff and its predestined failure to produce the required revenue, and we have abundant reason to predict that New York and the other Eastern States would go back to the Democratic column if the Democratic party should go back to its old platform. But if we are to have free coinage at 16 to 1 for the leading issue in 1900, those States will be just as impervious to Bryanism as they were last year. The congressional elections of next year may show a Democratic majority, because sober-minded people will take some risks in an off year, and the opponents of Dingleyism will indulge themselves in the privilege of giving it a blow when the consequences will not be fatal. But no such risk will be taken in the presence of a mortal struggle. The majority against Bryan or any Bryanite will be just as great in these States in the next Presidential election as it was in the last one.

How will it be in other parts of the country? The improved condition of business in the West, due to good crops and high prices of grain, points to a loss rather than a gain of votes for the free-coinage party in those States which are not immediately interested in silver mining. It is not probable that the Democratic-Populist combination could carry Kansas again. It is fair to say that Nebraska and the two Dakotas are debatable ground. What about the South? There are no silver mines in that section. There is no solid and reasoned belief in free silver as a factor of national prosperity. As the Macon *Telegraph* says, there is only a belief that the issue of 16 to 1 is the road to the offices. Let this idea be once dispelled, and the return of the Democratic party to its true principles is only a question of time. Among the influences looking to such a return we regard the action of the Atlanta bankers' convention as highly important, since it points the way to a real monetary reform, and one which can be defended on scientific grounds. The issue of banknotes against the assets of the banks, under adequate public supervision, puts the currency question in a new aspect to the great majority of voters, and turns their attention away from the hollow and specious fallacy of free coinage. It does not excite needless prejudice, but harmonizes with the best traditions of Southern banking.

"IMPERIALISM."

If Mr. Pearson, the author of 'National Life and Character,' were alive, he would be somewhat surprised by the fate which is overtaking the yellow race, which he feared might one day overrun the Western World. China is apparently destined to undergo, not the fate of Africa, for it is thickly peopled by a highly civilized race, but the fate of British India. There is apparently no opening for colonization in China more than in India. There is probably no place in that vast empire in which Europeans could live and make money without enslaving the natives, and this will never be attempted—not that the sentiment in favor of making colored men work by force is dead among our capitalists, but that democracy, being largely made up of free labor, abhors it. Its revival under a slightly disguised form has been attempted by the British gold miners in Africa, but it has raised such a storm about their ears at home that it is hardly likely to continue very long.

What is tempting in China to the Powers which are apparently making preparations to dismember it, is first the trade, and secondly the "imperial idea," which was started in England and has now spread all over the world. It was at first known as "Jingoism," when it issued from the fertile brain of Disraeli, but it has been gradually getting rid of this somewhat vulgar appellation, and, as "Imperialism," has become another name for a wide extent of territory, inhabited by divers races, speaking various languages, and kept in order by an immense apparatus of forts, native armies, and fleets. Since the abolition of the East India Company and the annexation of India directly to the British crown, and the assumption of the title of "Empress" by the Queen, the incessant proclamation of the extent of British territory, and of the glories of dominion over many lands and breeds of men, has at last stirred other imaginations than those of Englishmen. The idea has run through Europe, and has even made its way to America, that if a nation is to be great it must, like Rome, be "imperial"; that is, must reign over a large number of communities of one sort or other as "war lord," and do them good, and elevate them, not in their own way, but in yours.

There was some excuse for this in the case of nations like Great Britain and Germany, which had large populations pressing on the limits of subsistence at home, and therefore in real need of "fresh woods and pastures new"; but the idea has laid hold of countries like France, which has not a man to spare, and like the United States, which will not be able to people its own soil in a century. Even among us men began to say four or five years ago: "'Sdeath, sir! We have no Malta, no Gibraltar, not an island to our name, nor a single conquered race of a brown complexion, and look at England! These things are the signs of full growth in a nation, and we have now reached our majority. We must have islands and dagoes."

In Europe, all the first half of this

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century was occupied in internal quarrels or attempts to maintain absolute government. These have ended in the formation of Germany and Italy and the establishment of a republic in France. Consequently, the feeling of equality with England has burst forth with a renewed vigor, and the English celebrations, like the Jubilee, have stimulated it. There never was anything seen in the world like the procession in London of last summer except the "triumph" of a Roman general, so many were the races represented at it which had succumbed to the power of the British arms and adopted British civilization. This spectacle was not lost on the Continent, but it produced other things than admiration, namely, emulation. It spread or invigorated the desire to do likewise, to have foreign dominions which would, cost what they might, flatter the national pride, and give new glory to the boast of being a Russian, or a Frenchman, or a German. Poor Italy tried her luck in Abyssinia, but had to retire early from the struggle. Fifteen centuries of priestcraft and tyranny have apparently taken from the Italian character the hard edge necessary for conquest.

Africa has been divided under the somewhat comic term, "spheres of influence," and each Power is occupied, so far amicably, in getting what it can out of its "sphere." There probably reigned a good deal of indecision at Berlin and St. Petersburg what to do next, for German colonists do not go to German colonies—no colonist likes to have a "war lord" after him—when the easy victory of the Japanese over the Chinese turned the attention of all the predatory Powers to China and away from Japan. Japan proved herself in that struggle too hard a nut to crack, but the Chinese ripeness for conquest came out with terrible distinctness. Through her war, it appeared plainly that the ancient empire was simply a survival, and might be made to furnish Indias to half-a-dozen European states. This fact had the more importance from jumping into the eyes of two young emperors, each commanding a million of men and eager for some kind of distinction of the military sort, and bitterly jealous of England. The process of division of the Chinese empire, now begun, will probably go on, perhaps slowly at first, though more rapidly than the English subjugation of India. It took England less than fifty years, from the fall of Tippoo Sahib to the battle of Sobraon, to get full possession of the Indian peninsula, but she had to contend with warrior races who gloried in soldiery. The Germans and Russians will have to deal with a race which looks on a soldier as a good deal of a fool, and their invasion of the Central Flowery Land will be more or less of a promenade. The British are said to be sending a fleet to see what is going on, and would probably just now give a good deal to be rid of the "forward policy," which keeps their best army encamped on the Indian frontier, and arrays all the mountain tribes in hostility to them.

The most serious feature in the future is the possibility of converting the Chinese into soldiers of the first order. Undoubtedly the Power which first gets a Chinese army together, under European discipline and officers, will, as Gordon showed, get hold of a weapon of wonderful power. The patience of Chinese, their temperance, their indifference to death, are materials for military training such as the world has rarely seen, and are probably to-day not to be found in any other population except the Turks. Whatever invader gets hold of this weapon first, will have secured a great advantage over those who come after him.

BURKE ON PARTY.

It would seem to be established by general consent that the hall-mark which a life of eminence has earned should take the form of a two-volume biography. Other monuments, indeed, are sometimes raised, but the authorized 'Life' may be held to satisfy minimum requirements. The formal obsequies are not complete without this epilogue, after which the man and his works are cast into the cauldron of time, to be renewed like Aeson, or to be destroyed like Pelias. A century rolls by, and then, if the departed's fame has stood the test, and especially if he happens to be connected with any cause, faction, or school still living, the orthodox thing is to accord him a centenary celebration. This carries the process of sublimation a step further. The reputation that has stood the ordeal, whether of praise or of negative criticism, exacted by a first centennial is well sped on its way to Walhalla.

Admirers of Burke will scarcely regard as an unmixed evil the failure to "do something" for him last July. To be sure, Gibbon (of whom Sir James Mackintosh said that he might have been cut out of a corner of Burke's mind without his missing it) was recently honored by centenary festivities. Burke, who shunned Westminster Abbey, would probably have declined to be put in the same class with Gibbon for such purposes, and, moreover, the anniversary business is being overdone. Only this leaves room for regret: the Jubilee galas were still under full sail at the moment when the first centenary of the great statesman might have been observed. The Jingo feeling, testified to by Kipling's "Recessional," was rampant, and with it the praises of Disraeli. It is a pity that the tribute should have been paid to the juggler who, having invoked Burke in his first address to the Bucks electors, assumed in his title the name of Burke's country home, without inheriting any considerable measure either of his genius or of his virtues.

The fact is, that during the last hundred years all the doctrinaire politicians of the English world have derived their stock in trade from Burke. They may have opposed his views, but he has given them a point of departure. He set the standard of political thought high, and cast political principles about with lavish hand. We need not claim for him superhuman wisdom or superhuman virtue, to maintain that he showed the possibility of applying large ideas to current public issues. With a truly English conviction he defended growth against revolution, while defending the function of criticism against passive obedience. His views were based on a wide induction. He severed the dearest personal ties to support them. For innumerable reasons he should be conned by the modern student of politics as Thucydides was conned by the Greek orators of the fourth century.

With the knowledge that Burke was a strong party man, and with the fresh recollection that Party is now appealed to in pretty much the same way that Liberty was during the French Revolution, we become interested in the attempt to extract from his writings and experience something of present application; if not an oracle, at least á suggestion. The *locus classicus* on party government appears at the end of "Thoughts on the Causes of the Present Discontents." Supplementing the dogmas here enunciated by Burke's own action in 1790, we get a little food for reflection. The question of how far his fear of the King's Friends was justified by the circumstances of the case, is immaterial. His main remedies were the frank recognition of party, close touch between members and their constituents, and a restriction of the Commons to its proper sphere. The root proposition from which the argument proceeds is that almost all measures depend on "some great, *leading, general principles in government*" (Burke italicizes the words himself), and that, therefore, individuals will group themselves in defence of these principles. If a man has convictions, he will seek to carry them out, and in politics the normal way is by a combination. He will not be acting servilely if he votes with his party nine times out of ten; only in every tenth case will a measure be disconnected from the ruling principles which are acknowledged by all members of the party. Burke accepts the charge that parties strive eagerly for power. They should do so, he replies, "that they may carry their common plans into execution with all the power and authority of the state." Place-hunting is even a heavier count than lust of power. Burke faces this also and avows that

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political allies, "without a proscription of others, are bound to give to their own party the preference in all things." Turning to history, he finds that *idem sentire de republica* is among the noblest grounds of human association. One of England's most fortunate periods was that part of Queen Anne's reign when the Whig junto held sway. Sunderland, Godolphin, Somers, and Marlborough did not heed either taunts or slanders, but, linked, in Addison's phrase, by "long-tried faith, and friendship's holy ties," they devoted their joint powers to the service of the state.

Thus far Burke expresses ideas which might conceivably sit with grace upon a philosophic spoilsman. Our account of his arguments might lend color to Goldsmith's famous thrust that he "gave up to party what was meant for mankind." We have, however, kept some essential points in the background. Burke was contending with corruptionists, and wished to let the fresh ozone of public sentiment blow through a chamber which, long closed tight, had become tainted by the mephitic exhalations of clique and cabal. He had no fear of combinations that stand in the open and fight fairly. His partisans were "to pursue every *just* method." They were to form "a *fair* connexion." He would have shrunk from creating a close corporation like the fourteenth-century Parte Guelfa, at Florence. Lord Bute and his followers were, roughly speaking, that already. Burke recommends criticism, discussion, debate. His ideal scheme of party tactics finds historical expression in the campaign conducted by the Anti-Corn-Law League. He put false shame under his feet, and claimed that his party would be known by its inherent qualities. "Such a generous contention for power, on such manly and honorable maxims, will easily be distinguished from the mean and interested struggle for place and emolument."

The ultra-party man of any age speaks of the ties which bind him to his organization as though they were of more importance than the cardinal virtues. One gets little support for this attitude from Burke. He urges that in becoming patriots we are not to forget that we are gentlemen, and the honor of a gentleman would certainly require that, after his views became profoundly modified, he should change his party affiliations. We know how much it cost Burke to break with Fox, when the French Revolution presented a new set of political problems and conditions. His Whiggism, instead of proving to be a negation of all principle, was founded on broad convictions of public duty. He was able to carry many of his old associates with him, but in the narrow sense he deserted his party to form other combinations. In 1770 he said we must "model our principles to our duties and our situation." In 1790 he speaks of himself as one "who wishes to preserve consistency, but who would preserve consistency by varying his means to secure the unity of his end; and, when the equipoise of the vessel in which he sails may be endangered by overloading it upon one side, is desirous of carrying the small weight of his reasons to that which may preserve its equipoise."

The political bond which Burke advocates implies principles, character, and honor. We need hardly enter upon a detailed contrast between party, thus conceived, and the modern machine which has become a fetish.

BACCHYLIDES.

LONDON, December 8, 1897.

To-day is a red-letter day, not only in the calendar of Dryasdust, but in the rubrics of all who care for the best Greek poetry—of all who care for poetry, I might say, if a recent French critic is right in attributing our modern dearth of good literature to the recent neglect, in schools and colleges, of Greek letters. Bacchylides of Ceos is the great poet of the hour, though he lived and died twenty-four-odd centuries ago. For a thousand years his works were studied and preserved, then they disappeared—all, saving a few stray lines scattered in quotations here and there, and carefully garnered by Bergk, who has gathered in upwards of 100 lines. Of Bergk's sixty-nine quotations and allusions to Bacchylides, only fourteen repeat or refer to passages in the British Museum papyrus. It does not, then, contain all his poems, though presumably it has preserved his best. Six complete odes, the major part of eight more, and fractions of six others—such is the roster of Mr. Kenyon's 'Poems of Bacchylides,' published to-day.* The six complete odes contain 448 lines, only seventeen lines less than Pindar's Isthmians; the eight odes of which an average of two-thirds is resuscitated, contain 416 construable lines, while six of Pindar's eight Nemeans (iv. and viii. being excluded) contain 418 lines. These figures will, however, lead to an exaggeration of the amount of Bacchylides's resuscitated poetry, unless we bear in mind that the British Museum manuscript (one of the younger papyrus rolls, since it was written about the year 50 B. C.) resembles old-fashioned editions of Pindar in cutting the single lines very short. In addition to his year-long work upon the text, Mr. Kenyon has given an admirable introduction of 50-odd pages, provides serviceable preliminaries to each of the twenty items in his edition, and supplements his critical notes on the constitution of the text with a brief and practical commentary especially noticeable for its genial outlook upon literature at large. A reproduction of the uncial papyrus manuscript, letter by letter, fills the *verso* of each leaf, while the *recto* is occupied by a reconstructed text of the ordinary kind. Unplaced fragments of the papyrus come in at the end, where they are followed by Bergk's fragments. Finally, the work is crowned with an invaluable index of all words used by Bacchylides. The result is that we have for the first time in the annals of scholarship an *editio princeps* so complete in all essentials that it can be put into the hands of school-boys (between whom and the Egyptian grave near Luxor which hid these treasures for nearly 2,000 years our editor stands, with the goodly company of his helpers) as an epitome of modern scholarship.

Nothing is clearer than the close affinity between Sophocles and Bacchylides. This is frequently pointed out in Mr. Kenyon's commentary, and strikes the reader's mind at every turning of the page. Indeed, we may lay hands upon the epigram, and phrase it: "Easier to construe than Pindar, and more like Sophocles." We must remember, though, that Bacchylides was the elder, and that Sophocles was like him, not he like Sophocles. Moreover, Bacchylides has some things in common with Euripides; he is easier to construe than Sophocles. His metres, too, where they have been clearly made out, have the singing quality of Euripides at his best, or even the magical charm of Aristophanes. Any youth, whether at school or at college, who extracts pleasure from the metres of Horace, must feel the metrical charm of Bacchylides's sixth Epinician ode—two stanzas of eight lines, commemorating an Olympian foot-race won by the poet's compatriot, Lachon of Ceos, and beginning:

Λάχων Διὸς μεγίστου
λάχε φέρτατον ποδέσσι
κῦδος . . . . . .

Those teachers of Greek who have at heart more than the technical uses of their study, and would do their part toward the much-called-for revival of a living literature in days deserted of the Muse, must welcome the coming of "the Ceian nightingale," Bacchylides.

"Gold-frontleted Urania's glorious minion,
To burst the barriers of his heart he longs,
And flood great Hiero with liquid songs;
So the swift eagle ploughs with tawny pinion
Blue deeps aloft; a messenger of Zeus,
Wide-ruling warder of the thunder's crash,
Him in his wanton strength shall nought abash.
Let shriller birds, with twitterings profuse,
Cower and hide; no peaks has earth that rise
So high, nor billows has the restless deep
So wild that they shall hem his wing, whose sweep
Ranges the wilds of Chaos. Through the skies,
Balanced on delicate plumes, of men far-seen,
He rides the streaming zephyrs of the air."

No greater boon could have been granted to the intending reader of Pindar's Epinician odes than the four Epinicians (ii. v., vi., and xi.), in the longest of which the above passage occurs. It forms the companion-piece to Pindar's first Olympian, and celebrates the self-same race, won by Hiero's horse, "Victor." No one capable of finding high poetical merit in any ode celebrating any victory can deny that this ode of Bacchylides is fine, and yet it is not difficult in comparison with the lyrics of Pindar or with any one of the three great Greek tragedians. In fact, this ode and its three fellows might be likened to that book, dear to the young, called 'Reading without Tears,' and in moments of childlike expansiveness we might call Bacchylides our Pindar without Groans.

No respectable critic, least of all our editor, would claim for Bacchylides the supreme rank of a Pindar, and yet it is demonstrable that this Ceian bard (Simonides, be it remembered, was a brother of Bacchylides's mother) was more at home than his Bœotian rival on the sea. Pindar travelled habitually on land, and hence, in the opening of the second Isthmian, he lauds "these bards

* 'The Poems of Bacchylides,' edited from a papyrus in the British Museum by Frederick G. Kenyon. Printed by order of the Trustees of the British Museum. Oxford: University Press; New York: Henry Frowde.

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of ancient days," who "went their tuneful ways riding in the chariot of the Muses." Bacchylides, on the other hand, could not leave his native Ceos without taking ship. What beginning, then, was more natural for him than that of his twelfth Epinician? "Clio, queen of song, now, if ever before, stand like a good man and true at the helm of my heart, hold me thou to my straight course." When Bacchylides catches sight of the eagle it is from afar, standing on the Ceian shore, or sailing the Ægean, but Pindar sees the bird of Zeus as a landsman might, at close quarters; he watches while the power of song prevails and lulls the bird to sleep. Perhaps the landsman Pindar has his advantage here, but he "gives himself away" toward the end of his second Isthmian ode, where he rashly says of the winner Xenocrates, "Nor did the prosperous wind that blew around his hospitable board ever make him reef his sail, but summertide saw him faring toward Phasis, and in the winter-time he voyaged to the regions of the Nile." Only an egregious land-lubber—God save the mark!—could think of transforming a friend's festal board into a seaworthy craft, rig him out with a sail, and gayly pack him off from Girgenti to Egypt and the Euxine. It is hard, indeed, to imagine that Pindar, when he wrote this Sicilian Isthmian, had "found his sea-legs." As for Bacchylides, he had no others, and they would probably have prevented him from writing anything so uncomfortably amphibious as the lines in Pindar's famous fourth Pythian, where we read: "'Tis nought for men of nought to shake a city down, but hard the task indeed to root it where it stands, except the pilot of its rulers be a God."

Bacchylides is truly happy then, and all himself, when about him and beneath are levels of ocean incorruptible, with stainless airs above. "The depths of air suffer no stain," he exclaims in his third Epinician.* "The waters of the sea decay not, but man that has reached hoary age, may not win back the bloom of youth. Yet virtue hath a radiance which faileth not with the mortal frame, but is nourished by the Muse." Indeed, there is not in all literature a lyric more saturated with the magic of the sea than the greatest of all the known poems of Bacchylides—his "Pæan," numbered xvii. in this collection. The poet and his song transport and keep us by enchantment always far remote from sight or thought of land. Not a word is breathed that can break the spell of ocean that holds us fast, for the name of Cretan Ida serves but to remind us of the leagues of water through which Minos is driving home the dark-prowed ship, and the opening words snatch us into the middle of the Cretan sea:

"The dark-prowed ship, freighted with Theseus bold
And bright Ionia's children seven twice-told,
Was ploughing onward through the Cretan sea.
Far-shimmering appeared its radiant sail,
Strained in the North Wind's favorable gale.
Such was the Ægis-warring queen's decree,
Glorious Athena willed it so to be."

It appears that Bacchylides was for some time an exile from his native Ceos, and sojourned in the Peloponnesus, but he never lost the sense of the broad Ægean, which was with him everywhere. We have seen him at Olympia, and marked the eagle traversing his song, not as he might be seen from the holy Altis-ground, but as he appeared to Bacchylides at home in "wave-encompassed Ceos"—so Pindar calls it. Even King Hiero's winning horse "Victor" changes to a ship before Bacchylides has done with him, "onward-darting, safe he holds the helmsman on his back."

If we carry with us these preoccupations of our Ceian poet, and linger over the rhythms of his first Epinician Ode—a song of Ceos triumphing at the Isthmian festival of the lord of the ocean, Poseidon—we shall find there the surgings of quiet summer waves that die along the Ceian shore. One strophe, two antistrophes, and two epodes are all that has been recovered of this charming song, but the tides of the Ægean ebb and flow around us as we read. We are lapped, as if by the caressing and liquid swirl of a summer surf, in the cross-movements of these strophes and epodes. Two waves seem to contend through the first five lines, and to be half combined in the hampered stream of three lines at the close. The same two liquid movements strive again in the epode, the last line of which echoes their final union in a lengthened sweep that breaks upon the shore.

Perhaps, though, Bacchylides himself describes it best in his Pæan of Theseus, the High Seas' Song of Songs, whose beginning we have already quoted, where he tells us what Theseus saw in the deeps of the sea:

"Anon he reached the hall
Where Gods hold festival,
Beheld good Nereus's far-famed daughters there,
And shuddered at the sight.
Their glimmering limbs shone white,
While darting rays fire-bright
Flashed forth upon him. Round about their hair
Were glittering fillets rolled,—
Circlets of braided gold,—
The while they took their merriment,
Dancing with liquid feet their hearts' content."

The merriment of Nereids, dancing with liquid feet in the halls of Poseidon—such is the spectacle granted for our rejuvenation in the newly recovered works of Bacchylides, a poet whom the Muse found always dwelling on the open sea. LOUIS DYER.

* Mr. Kenyon's translation, given in his note on page 28.

CHAMPOLLION.

PARIS, December 13, 1897.

The name of Champollion, the man who, by a sort of intuition, discovered at the beginning of this century the lost secret of Egyptian hieroglyphic writing, is world-famous. We owe to him all our positive knowledge of the oldest dynasties of Egypt. No Frenchman having any culture can cross the Place de la Concorde without seeing its charming obelisk, which is almost a monument to Champollion.

M. de la Brière has just published, under the title 'Champollion Inconnu,' a small volume which will be found interesting by all who admire the work of the great Egyptologist. "Chance would have it," says M. de la Brière, "that, at the foot of the Alps of Dauphiny, a patrimonial house which came by marriage into the Champollion family, a house which had once belonged to Condillac and to Mably, situated in the village of Vif, near Grenoble, contained in its old archives, intact and inedited, letters of the illustrious Egyptologist." These letters were written by Jean François Champollion, who was still a child, to his eldest brother, Jacques Joseph, who represented for him the absent family. The Champollions hailed from Champoléon, on the River Drac, between Gap and Grenoble. Their family gave several officers to the army. We find in 1786 a Marquis of Champollion figuring with the Saint-Valliers, the Saint-Ferréols, the Chabrillants, Des Adrets, Du Bouchage, among the gentlemen of the Duke d'Orléans, Governor of Dauphiny. There was a Capt. Champollion at Jemmapes as officer of ordnance to the Duke de Chartres (the future King of France).

Jean François was born in 1790. His father was poor and held a post at Figeac. The Revolution closed all the old provincial colleges. The child was confided first to a poor monk of the Abbey of Figeac, whom the Champollion family had adopted after the abbey had been secularized. His eldest brother, Jacques Joseph, had left Figeac and established himself at Grenoble, where his great knowledge and his researches had already distinguished him. Desirous of helping his parents, and struck by the great intelligence of his younger brother, he sent for him and took entire charge of him at Grenoble. He always remained his guide, his mentor—in his Egyptological studies as well as in everything. They were called afterwards by everybody Champollion *l'aîné* and Champollion *le jeune*. Young Champollion obtained a *bourse* at the Lyceum of Grenoble at the age of thirteen. The lyceums had been organized only a little while before, and had become, as they still are now, official establishments. The programme of the lyceums organized by Napoleon was set forth to the rector of Grenoble in a letter from Fontanes, the grand-master of the University:

"I beg of you, M. le Recteur, to recommend the chiefs of all your establishments to give frequently, as subjects of composition, in prose as well as in verse, the principal facts in the history of France, and chiefly those which will make for ever memorable the reign under which we live. The innumerable exploits of the army under the orders of his Majesty the Emperor and his generals, the high wisdom of his laws, his administrative works, the embellishments of his cities, the public monuments which he has founded, the protection which he has given to science, to art, to industry, the vast influence of his genius on the fate of France and of Europe, the affection which we owe to his person, and the happiness which his dynasty promises to us, are an inexhaustible source of subjects which the pupils of French schools cannot touch without the liveliest interest."

Young Champollion was in constant correspondence with his elder brother. He wrote to him short notes, which have all been preserved. "The paper of the time is thick, solid; it differs in size and texture from our light modern papers. There were no envelopes; the name of the person to whom the letter was addressed was written on one side of the paper. The date is often wanting." Young Champollion was a very precocious child, and shows in his letters an inexhaustible curiosity; and, singularly enough, this curiosity, which is the most characteristic trait of his genius, is applied to the most arduous and difficult subjects. On some points he seems to have been almost blind: he never could get on in mathematics; he was drawn only towards the study of Oriental languages; he never showed the least taste for military life. The Lyceum received one day this appeal:

"It is the intention of his Majesty the Emperor that a presentation should be made to him of 150 young men, graduates of the lyceums. First appointed sergeants, they will receive, on arriving at their place of destination, brevets of sub-lieutenants. You

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will address to me, M. le Recteur, as soon as possible, your presentation lists:"

Champollion was not tempted by this offer; and afterwards, in 1811, when he became subject to the conscription, he found himself exempted from military service by a special decree of the Emperor made in the interest of the Oriental languages.

The letters given by M. de la Brière introduce to us the most minute details of life in a *lycée* under the First Empire. They show us the most singular mixture of military and monastic discipline; the school has corporals, and all the Latin expressions formerly used in the establishments kept by priests are carefully preserved—"præmium doctrinæ, accessit," etc. The old classic programmes were maintained; Champollion added to them the study of Hebrew, of Arabic, of local and provincial idioms. He astonished his masters more than his comrades, and attracted the attention even of the Administration. The *Journal de l'Isère* writes as follows after a visit from the Prefect to the Lyceum:

"Several pupils, in their hours of leisure, have given themselves up to studies which are no part of the teaching of the Lyceum. It is thus that we have in a public examination young J. F. Champollion, national pupil (*élève national*), explaining part of a chapter of Genesis in a Hebrew text, after having answered some questions on the Oriental languages in general. The Prefect, who crowned the best pupils, expressed his great satisfaction."

Champollion was a devourer of books; he studied everything.

"Send me the Gradus [the 'Gradus ad Parnassum' was still used a few years ago, before the fashion of writing Latin verses had been abandoned], Livy, Dioscorides. . . . Send me Anacreon in the Languedoc idiom. . . . I am reading Laharpe. . . . I send you back Condillac. . . . If you can, send me Duchoul 'Sur la Religion des Romains.' . . . Send me, I beg you, the 'Mythologie des Peuples du Nord.' . . . Send me the 'Synonymes français.' . . . I thank you for Mably; I have read the 'Entretiens de Phocion.' It seems to me that what the Abbé Mably says in his preface—that he has extracted and translated this work from a certain Greek manuscript in the library of the Convent of Mont-Cassin—ought to be judged like his preface to the 'Voyage d'Anténor en Grèce.' What do you think of it? Do you believe that it is a real translation from the Greek, that it is really antique, that it is a work of Phocion's? Plutarch does not speak of it in his life of the great man. I have great doubts. . . . Send me a book. I don't know what to do after I have performed my Latin exercises and studied Hebrew, Syriac, and Chaldean."

It was evidently at the instigation of his elder brother that Champollion tried to make himself a linguist, and learned the Oriental languages; but what is really astonishing is that he learned them without a master. He had a real passion for the East. "If I write a Latin exercise, it is only to avoid the penalty; I have long lost my taste for it. The Oriental languages are my favorite passion . . . Greek, Hebrew and its dialects, Arabic—these are what I burn to learn well." His brother held out to him a hope of getting him a place in the special school of the Oriental languages in Paris. He gave him, at a distance, some elements of philology. The Jansenists of Port-Royal made what they called the 'Garden of Greek Roots' and the 'Garden of Latin Roots.' These books were valuable; they were written in verse, the better to help young minds to enter into the analysis of languages. Young Champollion very early took pleasure in this analysis. He writes, for instance, to his brother:

"I have read in the 'Mécanisme des Langues' the controversy of MM. Falconet and Frenel on the signification of the word Dunum. The former maintains that Dunum signifies a high place, which seems rather suitable for *Uxellodunum*, the present Capdenac, for you know that it is on a high hill. M. Frenel says that it means an inhabited place. To clear up the point, I have searched among the Hebrew roots, and found that Dome means city. Compare Medina, an Arab city, and Dinas in Bas-Breton means city. In Greek, I find that Diné means a hollow."

Egypt early appealed to his imagination.

"I wish to make a profound and continuous study of this ancient nation. The enthusiasm which the description of its enormous monuments has excited in me, the admiration which I have felt for its power and its knowledge, will increase with the new notions I am going to acquire. Of all the peoples I prefer, I confess that none can balance the Egyptians in my heart."

He learns everything that concerns Egypt: "I have no buttons for my pantaloons. Send me 'Ludolphi Ethiopica Grammatica.'" He does not yet know the language of the Pharaohs, and is only making approaches; he feels instinctively that he has something to learn from all the invaders of Egypt—from the Greeks, the Arabs, the Hebrews, who were at one time enemies, at another allies. He delights in the Bible in the original Hebrew, in the rudiments of Arabic, in the Koran. His Hebrew Bible has been preserved; the volume is much worn, the pages covered with additions and corrections, with manuscript notes.

The correspondence of which I have given a brief account ends in 1807; in that year young Champollion left Grenoble for Paris. There he worked in the great public libraries, pursuing his philological studies, mixing with the men who had accompanied Napoleon to Egypt. The intercourse with his brother becomes also more complete. Young Champollion was now preparing himself with more advantages for the discovery of that marvellous key which he afterwards gave to science, and which revealed to the world the hidden sense of the hieroglyphs, the secret of the obelisks, the temples, the pyramids, and the tombs of the valley of the Nile.

The archives of Vif, in the Department of the Isère, preserve, besides the letters written by Champollion at school, those which he wrote during his life as a student in Paris. M. de la Brière gives us only short extracts from these highly interesting letters. At the age of nineteen, Champollion was appointed professor of history at Grenoble; he went back to Paris at the age of thirty; he was only thirty-two years old when he read, on the 17th of September, 1822, before the Academy of Inscriptions, the account of his discovery of the key to the hieroglyphs, a discovery which will make his name for ever famous.

Correspondence.

PROPOSED SYLVESTER MEMORIAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I be permitted to appeal through your columns to all friends and admirers of the late Professor J. J. Sylvester to assist in founding a suitable memorial in honor of his name and for the encouragement of mathematical science? A movement was inaugurated on this side of the Atlantic soon after his death, and it was resolved by the promoters that a fund should be raised for the purpose of establishing a Sylvester Medal, to be awarded at certain intervals for mathematical research to any worker irrespective of nationality. For the purpose of carrying out the scheme, a strongly representative international committee has been formed, and I should like to take advantage of this opportunity of expressing the great satisfaction which it has given to the promoters to be enabled to include in this committee so many great and distinguished names from the American universities. In every case our invitation to join the committee has been most cordially responded to, and the consent has in many instances been accompanied by expressions of the greatest sympathy and encouragement. The list, as it stands, practically includes the leading mathematicians of the whole world.

It has been estimated that a capital sum of $5,000 will be sufficient for the proposed endowment, and of this about one-half has already been subscribed here. In appealing to the American public to enable us to complete the desired sum, I am in the first place prompted by the consideration that Sylvester's association with the Johns Hopkins University, and the leading part which he took in advancing mathematical science in America, render his claim to estimation on the part of the citizens of your country quite a special one. It is but a modest endowment that we are asking for, and I am sure that all those who were personally acquainted with him, and who realize the great influence which he exerted in raising the intellectual level of every institution with which he was associated, will be glad of this opportunity of coöperating in the movement.

It is proposed that the fund, when complete, shall be transferred to the Council of the Royal Society of London, that body having undertaken to accept the trust and to award the medal triennially to mathematicians of all countries.

I can hardly venture to trespass upon your courtesy to the extent of asking you to print the complete list of our committee, but for your own information I beg to send a copy herewith. It will be sufficient to state that it comprises the names of President Gilman of Johns Hopkins University, of Professor Simon Newcomb of Washington, of Professor Willard Gibbs of Yale, of Professor Peirce of Harvard, and many other well-known American men of science. Subscriptions may be sent to and will be acknowledged by Dr. Cyrus Adler, the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, or by Dr. George Bruce Halsted, President of the Academy of Science, No. 2407 Guadalupe Street, Austin, Texas.—I am, sir,

Yours obediently,

Raphael Meldola,

Professor in the Finsbury Technical College, London, England, Hon. Organizing Secretary to the Sylvester Memorial.

December, 1897.

SOUTH CAROLINA PRECEDENTS FOR NEW JERSEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of December 16 you notice the complication which will arise in New Jersey in regard to the seat of the President of the Senate, who will succeed to the office of Governor upon the resignation of Mr. Griggs to accept the position of Attor-

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ney-General of the United States, and to assist in the solution of which, you say, there is no local precedent. It happens that the same question, under somewhat similar circumstances, has been several times met and acted upon in South Carolina, an account of which may not be uninteresting nor without value in the decision of the case in New Jersey.

The subject is an old, a very old, one in South Carolina. The question arose in the very inception of the colony, more than two hundred years ago. Under the instructions of Gov. Sayle, the first Governor, he was given a Council of Deputies. These were the Deputies of the respective Proprietors, who were to sit as an Upper House, or Senate, and, with twenty persons elected by the "freemen," to constitute a Parliament. Gov. Sayle was authorized by his commission, with the advice and approbation of his Council, to nominate a Deputy to succeed him in case he should die or depart from the province. The Governor was a very old man, and, his health failing under the fatigue and exposure of the new settlement, on March 4, 1671, he sent for his Council, and, with their approbation, nominated Joseph West as his successor. Only five Deputies had been appointed, and one of these had not come out. Another had been suspended by the Governor and the other Deputies, leaving but three, including West, who had been nominated to succeed Sayle. It happened that, upon the death of Sayle, Sir John Yeamans claimed the government as a Landgrave under the famous Fundamental Constitution of Locke, and in doing so he made the precise question now under consideration. He insisted that as, under the instructions, it required *three* Deputies to constitute a quorum, if West became Governor there could be no quorum of Deputies, since by accepting the office he would cease to be a Deputy; that he could not be both a Deputy and Governor. Therefore, he argued, he could not be Governor, and *ipso facto* dissolve the government. But the point, however ingenious, was disregarded.

The question was again involved in a controversy in 1700 when Joseph Blake, a Deputy, was exercising the office of Governor, being chosen by the Council to fill a vacancy until the pleasure of the Lords Proprietors could be known. In this instance, Governor Blake, appearing upon a committee of conference between the upper and lower house as a Deputy, resented the absence of official respect to him as Governor. But the committee of the Commons declined to be overawed by the official dignity as Governor while he was meeting them as a member of the Council.

In 1725, Sir Francis Nicholson, the provisional Royal Governor, upon the overthrow of the Proprietary Government, leaving the province, and there being, as yet, no Lieutenant-Governor, the administration devolved upon the President of the Council, who continued to conduct it as such until the appointment of the first regular Royal Governor, Robert Johnson. In this case it is interesting to observe that Arthur Middleton, the President of the Council, was not styled Governor, as has been erroneously assumed, but was addressed as *President and Commander-in-chief*, and exercised the office in that name. So, again, upon the death of Governor Robert Johnson in 1735, Lieutenant-Governor Broughton succeeded to the administration, and upon his death in 1737 (no Governor having yet been appointed) William Bull succeeded to the administration as *President of the Council*.

I can recall no other instance in which the President of the Council or Senate was called upon to act until within the last twenty years, when the precise case now under consideration in New Jersey occurred in South Carolina. Upon the meeting of the General Assembly after Governor Wade Hampton's second election as Governor, he was immediately elected to the United States Senate, and thereupon, under the Constitution of the State, Lieutenant-Governor W. D. Simpson succeeded to the administration of the office. In 1879 it happened he was elected Chief Justice, and then, under the Constitution and act in pursuance of that instrument, the administration devolved upon the Hon. Thomas B. Jeter, Senator from Union County, who was then President *pro tempore* of the Senate—the Lieutenant-Governor under the Constitution being the President of the Senate. Mr. Jeter, upon assuming the duties, assumed also the title of Governor, and as such administered the office for some months, when the Hon. Johnson Hagood, having been elected Governor, qualified.

And now the question arose as to Mr. Jeter's right to retain his seat in the Senate as Senator from Union. Curiously enough, repeating the position taken by Sir John Yeamans two hundred and ten years before, it was held that Mr. Jeter could not have been Governor and Senator at the same time, and as he had been Governor, it was said, he was not Senator, although the term for which he had been elected, four years (1878-1882), had not expired. The question was raised in the Senate and referred to the judiciary committee, which returned two reports, a majority and a minority report. The majority report found that Mr. Jeter's seat became vacant upon his assuming the position of Governor; the minority report maintained the contrary. The question was debated on December 7, 1880, when the majority report was laid upon the table, the minority report adopted, and Mr. Jeter served out the remainder of the term for which he had been elected (see Senate Journal 1880, 147).

I was a member of the Legislature at the time, and was much interested in the question. The mistake, as I conceived, was in the assumption of the title of Governor by Mr. Jeter. He never was Governor. The Constitution had provided that the General Assembly should by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability of both the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, declaring what officer should then *act as Governor*. In pursuance of this provision, the General Assembly had provided by act (1868) that in such case the President of the Senate *pro tempore* "shall exercise the office of Governor." Under these constitutional provisions, it will be observed, Mr. Jeter was not Governor: he was an officer—the President of the Senate—*acting* "*as Governor*," *exercising* "*the office of Governor.*" He should have followed the early precedents and styled himself *President of the Senate*, acting as Governor, etc. Had this course been followed, the question as to his seat in the Senate would not have arisen.

An illustration familiar to all old soldiers of the late war is applicable. The colonel of a brigade who assumed command in the absence of the brigadier-general did not thereby become a brigadier, but was merely the Colonel commanding the Brigade. Or, in like cases, the brigadier-general became the Brigadier commanding the Division, but not a Major-General, etc.

Very respectfully, EDWARD MCGRADY.

CHARLESTON, S. C., December 24, 1897.

"AN ALLEGED SPECIE CIRCULAR OF 1827."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* for December 9 appears an interesting communication from Mr. William MacDonald, under the above caption. Mr. MacDonald takes as his text the assertion of Prof. Sumner and of Mr. Schouler that a circular similar to the noted specie circular of President Jackson "was issued in Adams's administration." He then produces a copy of the instructions referred to, and declares himself incredulous as to their similarity to the specie circular. Mr. MacDonald, in fact, proves his case, but hesitates to assert boldly that the authorities quoted are wrong. The comparison which he institutes between the instructions issued by Secretary Rush and the specie circular establishes conclusively that there exists no such similarity. The difference between them is essential; they are acts of quite opposite meaning. The specie circular had for its purpose the absolute discontinuance of the receipt of banknotes in payment of land dues, while the instructions of Rush had for their purpose the definition of what banknotes might be accepted for land dues; one Secretary instructs the receivers to receive banknotes, and the other instructs them *not* to receive banknotes.

If Mr. MacDonald had looked a little further, he would have found that the instructions of Rush did not stand alone, but were supported by like instructions, both before and after Rush's incumbency of the Treasury. To discover the cause which lay at the bottom of all such instructions, we have to go back to the joint resolution of April 30, 1816, which declared that "from and after the 20th day of February," 1817, no "duties, taxes, debts, or sums of money accruing or becoming payable to the United States . . . ought to be collected or received otherwise than in the legal currency of the United States, or Treasury notes, or notes of the Bank of the United States, or in notes of banks which are payable and paid on demand in the said legal currency of the United States" (iii. Statutes at Large, p. 343). This resolution was intended to aid the Bank of the United States in restoring specie payments, and the policy outlined in it was responsible for the Rush circulars and those of other Secretaries of the Treasury, which were identical in spirit and defined the attitude of the Government towards bank paper until the specie circular was promulgated. The first of these was issued by Secretary Crawford, either in 1817 or early in 1818, as we learn from a communication of that official to the Senate on March 27, 1818. In this communication Crawford uses the following language:

"The collectors and receivers of public money throughout the nation have been instructed to receive in payment of duties, taxes, and public lands nothing but current specie, the bills of the Bank of the United States, its officers, and the State and other local banks employed as offices of deposit, and the bills of such other banks as will be received by them and credited as

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specie for the use of the United States. It may be proper to observe that the Bank of the United States and its offices receive as specie the bills of all local banks which pay specie, that are established in the places where that bank and its offices are respectively established" (iii. Folio Finance, p. 265).

A careful examination of the terms here laid down will show that they were quite as restrictive as those insisted upon by Secretary Rush. Crawford issued similar instructions later in the year, this time exclusively to receivers of dues from the public land sales (State Papers v., Finance, p. 62-63), and on August 1, 1820, Crawford issued his last instructions of this character. The circular contained these clauses:

"With a view to increase and equalize the facilities for making payment for public lands in the several land districts of the United States, I have determined to authorize the receivers of public moneys to take, in addition to specie and the bills of the United States Bank and its branches, the notes of the following incorporated banks, viz., those of the cities of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and the Merchants' and Franklin Banks of Alexandria, and those specie-paying banks in the State in which the land office is situated.

"This instruction supersedes those that have heretofore been given on the subject, except in so far as they prohibit the receipt of any paper of any bank which does not discharge its notes in specie on demand; and that prohibition must, in every case, be rigidly adhered to" (State Papers iv., Finance, p. 264).

It will be seen that this is almost identical with the instructions given by Rush on February 22, 1826. The supplemental circular of August 22, 1827, was more restrictive, and both were meant to discourage as much as possible the receipt of any paper but that of the Bank of the United States, without actually prohibiting such receipt. In addition to these, we have a circular of Secretary Taney of March 26, 1834, which is of the same import, and reads in part as follows:

"It is . . . expected that you will be careful to receive the notes of no bank except such as are in good credit and pay specie promptly for their notes when presented, and you are to receive none except such as the bank in which you deposit will agree to pass to the credit of the United States as cash" (Senate Document 334, 24th Congress, 1st session, p. 7).

This was the last of these circulars until that of July 11, 1836.

Mr. MacDonald thinks it probable that the Rush circulars would have been referred to by the supporters of Jackson's policy as furnishing a precedent for the specie circular, supposing Prof. Sumner's assertion to be correct. He says, however, that the debates "apparently make no mention of a 'similar circular' of 1827," though he admits that his "examination has not been exhaustive." The truth is that Senator Benton, who made the first speech in support of the Administration, based a great part of his argument upon these circulars of Crawford and Rush. A quotation will show this plainly:

"For twenty years, and under three Presidents, all the Secretaries of the Treasury have acted alike. Each has made selections, permitting the notes of some specie-paying banks to be received, and forbidding others. Mr. Crawford did it in numerous instances; and . . . . no human being ever thought of charging him with illegality in this respect. Mr. Rush twice made similar selections, during the administration of Mr. Adams; and no one, either in the same cabinet with him, or out of the cabinet against him, ever complained of it. For twenty years the practice has been uniform; and every citizen of the West knows that that practice was the general, though not universal, exclusion of the Western specie-paying bank paper from the Western land offices" (Thirty Years' View, i., p. 697).

But Senator Benton's argument was not that the circulars were similar in the sense that Rush's were specie circulars. His whole contention was that if, under the resolution of April 30, 1816, the instructions of Secretary Rush were legal, so was the specie circular, since both made discriminations in regard to the nature of the currency to be received in the payment of land dues. This was the only similarity he claimed for them. His argument was at once met by Webster as follows:

"The gentleman argues that the Treasury has made discriminations, but what discriminations? I suppose the whole truth to be simply this, that admitting at all times the right of the party paying to pay in notes of specie-paying banks, the collectors and receivers have not been held bound to receive notes of distant banks of which they know nothing, and could not judge, therefore, whether their notes came within the law" (Works, vol. iv., p. 277).

And he concludes by saying that "he was of the opinion that the specie circular was against the plain words and meaning of the law of 1816, against the whole practice of the Government under that law."

Senator S. L. Southard of New Jersey cherished the same conviction, while Calhoun expressed himself in even more emphatic language, Gales and Seaton quoting him thus: "Mr. Calhoun briefly characterized the Treasury order as unconstitutional, without law, without precedent, without any authority whatever" (Congressional Debates, vol. xiii., p. 375).

These extracts are conclusive as to the similarity of the specie circular of 1836 to anything that preceded it, and Mr. MacDonald is amply justified in casting doubt upon the statement made by Prof. Sumner and by Mr. Schouler. Indeed, he would have been well within bounds had he ventured a positive contradiction. It is interesting to note that the two historians, both authorities of weight, have made the same error. Mr. Schouler's authority would seem at first glance corroborative of Prof. Sumner's correctness. On the contrary, however, it apparently gives reason for doubting Mr. Schouler's own accuracy and his carefulness in making important statements, for it seems evident on examination that he has transferred to his own pages both the assertion and reference from Sumner's 'Jackson,' without verifying the one or the other.

Mr. MacDonald states that he has been unable to discover the circulars of Rush in the Government publications. He will find the printed text of that of February 22, 1826, on page 157, Senate Document 193, Twentieth Congress, first session; and the text of the supplementary circular of August 22, 1827, on page 59 of the same document. They are also reprinted in State Papers v. Public Lands, pp. 519, 520. In both cases they are appended to a report on the transactions of Receiver Thomas A. Smith. It is not surprising, therefore, that Mr. MacDonald did not find them.

RALPH C. H. CATTERALL.
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, December 22, 1897.

"I WOULD LIKE," ETC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I live in a part of this country where the correct use of the auxiliaries *shall* and *should*, *will* and *would*, is very much neglected, at least according to old-time standards. Years and years ago I remember reading in the *Nation* that "there still are people who judge of a man's English by his use or misuse of *shall* and *will*, as they judge of his table manners according as he eats with his knife or not." (I quote from memory.) I also remember in the *Nation* a remark attributed, I think, to James Russell Lowell, to whom a lady had written (or said): "I would like to have your autograph." His comment was (in substance): "Well, if she *would* like to have it, why doesn't she go and do it and have done with it?"

Now the centre of light on all matters pertaining to English is supposed to be New England, and Boston in particular; and last October (8th and 9th) there was held in Boston the twelfth annual meeting of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, and I have just been reading in the December number of the *School Review* the report of the proceedings. "Fancy my feelings" when I read on page 648, lines 13-15: "When this good time comes, . . . we will not have so many mental abortions"; and *twice* on p. 681 (lines 7 and 14): "I would like to add a word"; "I would like to contribute." Can it be possible, Mr. Editor, that the general numbness as to these auxiliaries is actually extending towards the Hub? "If the foundations be destroyed," etc.

One other point: Is it correct to say, "Much data"? It must be, for it is in the same *School Review*, middle of p. 668; but it sounds odd to one as ignorant of English as is

Yours truly, A. H.

Notes.

In Messrs. Appletons' "Literatures of the World" series, the next volume will be by Edmund Gosse, and will deal with 'Modern English Literature.'

D. C. Heath & Co. have in press 'The Contribution of the Oswego Normal School to Educational Progress in America,' by A. P. Hollis.

Henry Frowde will shortly publish 'The Bible References of John Ruskin,' selected by permission and alphabetically arranged by Mary and Ellen Gibbs.

In T. Fisher Unwin's "Masters of Medicine," Sir James Young Simpson becomes the next subject of biography, by Dr. Laing Gordon, a former pupil of Simpson's. The interest of the work centres in the introduction of anæsthetics.

'Hazell's Annual for 1898' (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney) renews itself with its customary thoroughness. Athletics in general, with cricket, cycling, golf, swimming, tennis, yachting, etc., for 1897 are duly chronicled; so are art, the drama, music, photography, trade; and in the case of British colonies and foreign countries the article on each concludes with a narrative of the principal events of the year. Then there are new biographies, new maps of seats of war and "spheres of influence," obituaries; the Jubilee looms up; statistics of prison

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and post-office, of army and navy, movements of the Stock Exchange and of labor, religious conferences, and a host of other topics swell the contents of this most useful book of reference.

A second edition of Mr. W. F. Willcox's 'Divorce Problem' (Columbia University) contains an appendix giving the results of the eleventh census, so far as they bear on conjugal relations. The divorce rate during the twenty years ending in 1886 has somewhat declined in the North Atlantic States, doubled in the South Atlantic States, trebled in the South Central States, increased 54 per cent. in the Western States, 20 per cent. in the North Central States, and 44.5 per cent. in the whole country. The rate per 100,000 married couples was, in 1886, for the United States 250, for the Western States 527, for the North Atlantic States 149, and for the South Atlantic States 106. The tendency to increase seems especially marked in the last decade.

The Century Company has brought out in book form 'Campaigning with Grant,' by Gen. Horace Porter, which has been running in the Magazine as a serial. The illustrations are all full-page, on plate paper, and a number of good portraits have been added to the list of engravings. To the presswork of the De Vinne Press, add an uncommonly tasteful binding, and we have as handsome a specimen of book-making as one often sees. Speaking to the substance of this work, we cannot rate it highly. Not only is it badly diluted, but there is much more of Porter than of Grant in it. It is a companion-piece to Badeau.

Mr. Fred Mather has gained a good reputation as a fish-culturist and as a writer on fish and angling. His 'Men I Have Fished With' (*Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.) is made up of sketches which originally appeared in *Forest and Stream*, and the men it commemorates are perhaps better known to the readers of that journal than to the general public, with the possible exception of the late George Dawson and Col. Charles H. Raymond. While two or three of the stories have enough interest to justify reprinting, the rest of the twenty-odd cannot be recommended as either instructive or amusing.

The author of 'Camp and Trail' (Lothrop) deserves praise for her advocacy of humaneness in hunting, but does not successfully reproduce life in the Maine woods, still less depict its peculiar charm. This failure is not due to absence of long descriptions of scenery or to lack of stirring adventures. It comes from apparent inability to write good English, from ignorance of the vernacular of the guides, and from occasional slips sure to provoke an experienced camper. In a juvenile work, he is willing the youthful heroes should carry out bear, moose, and caribou on the same trip, but he rebels when a skilled woodsman walks through the forest, compass in one hand, axe in the other.

'For Pity's Sake,' by Sarah Nelson Carter (Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.), is dedicated by the author to her horse, her dog, and her cat, and is meant to inculcate the lesson of mercy towards these and all other animals. The moral of the book, and its numerous anecdotes, are strung on a thread of narrative, the scene being laid at the old Mansion House in Andover, Mass., long the home of the author. Many are the animals whose lives have been made pleasant by her gentle appreciation of their needs and capacities, and many more, it is to be hoped, may be benefited by the touching appeals which she has here presented to the public in their behalf.

'Sunshine and Shadow,' by W. Lincoln Adams, is, as the sub-title indicates, "a book for photographers, amateur and professional." It is published in sumptuous style by the Baker & Taylor Co., New York. Richly and abundantly illustrated, its teaching is effective through the numerous reproductions of well-chosen plates, as through the excellent matter contained in the various articles, all of which have appeared at various times in the pages of the *Photographic Times* or of the *American Annual of Photography*. The book is edited by Mr. Adams, who has made his selections with great skill and taste. Such a work is especially welcome to those who desire to see photography developed along art lines, and not simply along commercial.

In 'Light, Visible and Invisible: Lectures at the Royal Institution,' by Silvanus P. Thompson (Macmillan), the author suggests a new method in geometrical optics which seems to be a step backward, whether viewed theoretically or practically. Bidwell's color-effects of intermittent vision, something about anomalous dispersion, about luminescence, perhaps about Hertz's work, about various kinds of invisible light, and Stottes's theory of the X-rays, are the only matters not familiar to the general reader concerning which this volume will furnish new information. But these things are enough to make it worth reading.

Prof. William S. Hall's 'Calculus' (Van Nostrand Co.) deserves mention as the briefest and simplest of expositions of the indispensable parts of the calculus, wholly in the interest of its applications and not of the theory of functions. Imaginaries are not considered. There are some injudicious omissions, such as linear differential equations with constant coefficients.

Prof. John Perry's 'Calculus for Engineers' (Edward Arnold) may be mentioned on account of its singular plan. It has three chapters. The first is entitled simply "$x n$," and treats of such things as velocity, acceleration, energy, thermodynamics, moments of bending, etc. Chapter ii., entitled "e^x and sin x," treats of compound interest, telegraph leakage, Newton's law of cooling, slipping of belts, harmonic functions, imaginaries, forced vibrations, various electrical questions, symbols of operation, struts with lateral loads, etc. Chapter iii., entitled "Academic Exercises," gives Taylor's and Maclaurin's theorems on pp. 317-319, and on p. 322 takes up the solution of differential equations. These, with numerous practical examples (matter for several large volumes), carry us to p. 338, leaving thirty pages for elliptic functions, spherical harmonics, conduction of heat, the gamma function, etc. Such a lightning express through the calculus may very likely serve to give young men a sense of the importance of the subject and a desire to study it more systematically.

The sixth volume of the 'Discours et Opinions de Jules Ferry' comes from the press of Armand Colin & Cie., Paris. The speeches on economic questions are of particular interest even to American readers, perhaps especially to them. They constitute a large and important part of the present volume.

Since Émile de Laveleye's death, his contributions to magazines have been, in part at least, reprinted, and the third volume of these 'Essais et Études' (Paris: Félix Alcan) has reached us. It concludes the series, and contains articles which were originally published between 1883 and 1892. During his last years De Laveleye had access to all the leading reviews of the Continent, England, and the United States. He kept himself very well informed on public questions, and was willing to tackle anything which happened to be prominent for the time being. While we are far from sharing his economic views in their entirety, we are free to express our admiration of his learning, quick-wittedness, and pure moral tone. The editor of these scattered pieces concludes by stating that they will enable one "surtout à faire suivre pas à pas l'évolution de cet esprit élevé, si éminemment chrétien." The evidences of a fine temper are everywhere manifest in De Laveleye's works, and one is bound to take whatever he wrote seriously. The present essays have no further unity than is afforded by the well-known general interests of their author. Indeed, he once or twice gets off his beat of current politics and economics—for instance, when he describes a bear hunt in the Carpathians, and again in a paper on "Hamlet," contributed to the *Revue Bleue*. Written in an engaging style, these papers deserve not only to be saved from the sudden oblivion which overtakes journalistic literature, but to be carefully considered by the student of recent European history.

The twenty-second fascicule of the Hatzfeld 'Dictionnaire Général de la Langue Française' (Paris: Delagrave) carries this excellent work well along in P. Under *pékin*=civilian, the editors give no countenance to any of the proposed derivations, but leave the etymology uncertain.

'Politik: Vorlesungen gehalten an der Universität zu Berlin von Heinrich von Treitschke, herausgegeben von Max Cornicelius,' has just appeared in Leipzig from the press of Hirzel. The book is made up with the aid of the notes left by Treitschke, very fragmentary, to be sure, helped out, however, by several sets of shorthand notes lent to the editor by former students of the master. For those who know how much of his own personality Treitschke put into his lectures, and how often his most interesting words came at the moment, the work of the editor will seem remarkably successful, much more than a carefully restored text. As Herman Grimm says, "It is as if Treitschke himself were speaking to us." The "Polit'k" was one of his favorite courses, which he regularly gave each winter semester in Berlin, and had given earlier at Freiburg and at Heidelberg. The present volume contains two books, "Das Wesen des Staates" and "Die Socialen Grundlagen des Staates," preceded by a masterly introduction, which gives in a few words a summary of the attitude of previous teachers and the present state of the science. The editor promises that the second and concluding volume will very shortly follow. Not students alone, but every thinking man who gives a thought to the relations of the individual and the state, will find a deep interest in these volumes.

A pamphlet, 'Two Papers on the Oscan Word Anasaket,' by Lionel Horton Smith, contains a reprint from the *Classical Review* and a second paper on the same subject

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which is an elaborate defence of the theory advanced in the first, to wit, that the puzzling Oscan *anaSaket* is nothing but the Greek ἀνέθηκε. Notwithstanding the vast amount of erudition which is brought forward to show the possibility of this view, it will doubtless seem to many extremely improbable. The author, who, as appears from the title-page, is now a barrister-at-law, has shown an astonishing productivity in the last two years, as may be seen from the array of titles and press notices printed at the end of the work.

The principal paper in the *Geographical Journal* for December is an account, by Capt. P. M. Sykes, of three extensive journeys in Persia, in which he refers incidentally, but in strong terms, to the benefit conferred by Russia on Central Asia, and Persia in particular, by suppressing the Turkoman terror. The slave-hunting raids of these freebooters, which till recently extended throughout northeastern and central Persia, have now ceased, and they themselves have advanced in civilization through Russian influence. The description of a visit to the oasis of Siwa, in the Libyan desert, famous for its temple of Jupiter Ammon, is interesting but disappointing. Some ancient tombs were seen, but there is no mention of the ruins of the temple, nor of the "Fountain of the Sun," which excited the wonder of Herodotus. The fruit gardens and date-palm forests, however, are still marvels of beauty and luxuriance. Of dates, the principal production of the inhabitants and their currency practically, there are five kinds cultivated, the best of which is too juicy to be exported. The oasis is apparently a stronghold of the fanatical Mohammedan sect of the Senussi, whose hostility to strangers, and especially Europeans, prevented any thorough exploration. Capt. A. W. Stiffe continues his account of the ancient trading centres of the Persian Gulf by a description of Maskat and a sketch of its history. Each of these articles is illustrated and accompanied by maps.

Gold-mining in Pahang, a "Protected State" in the Malay Peninsula, is the principal subject of a paper in the Transactions of the Queensland Branch of the Royal Geographical Society of Australia. The returns are not yet very great, but the three large quartz-mining companies, each with twenty head of stampers at work, are now getting more than enough gold to defray expenses. The ore is, on the whole, of low grade, averaging about half an ounce of gold per ton. Ancient native workings are very numerous in the gold districts. On one hill there were "some hundreds of shafts, some of them 100 feet deep." The miners are said to have been Siamese.

Petermann's Mitteilungen, No. 11, contains the first part of a diary of a recent journey in Syria and southeastern Asia Minor, by R Oberhummer. It is laudatory of the Turkish authorities, but contains numerous references to the oppressed condition of the Christian Greeks and Armenians. In several places they have taken up their abode in almost inaccessible caves the better to defend themselves against the Turks, while the passage of a body of recruits through a village caused all the women and children to hide themselves in the crypt of a monastery. An account of the province of Yakutsk, Siberia, fairly bristles with statistics of every kind, meteorological, ethnographical, commercial, agricultural, and hunting. In 1894, for instance, there were 13,434 professional hunters who killed 218,812 animals, of which 179,242 were squirrels.

A certain interest, though hardly much importance, attaches to the unsettled question of the date of Heine's birth. Hermann Hüffner has only recently (in the *Rundschau*) pleaded in favor of December 13, 1797. But now we learn from another source that the sculptor Hasselriis of Rome, is, by agreement with the poet's relatives, working at a monument which is to be unveiled on his grave at Montmartre on December 17, 1899, "the poet's one-hundredth birthday." The proceeds from the sale of a brochure, 'Das Heine-Grab auf dem Montmartre' (Leipzig: Barsdorf), and the interest of a sum exceeding five thousand marks collected at Frankfort, will be applied to keeping the tomb in a worthy state of preservation now and henceforth. According to Hüffner, the musical compositions of Heine's poems, by Schubert, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Brahms, Robert Franz, and others, number more than 3,000. "Du bist wie eine Blume" alone has been set to music 160 times; of other lyrics there are 83 and 76 different compositions, of "Die Lorelei," 37.

About two years ago we called attention to M. Joseph Texte's work on the literary relations between France and England. The same writer contributes to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for December 1 an article on a similar subject: "L'Influence Allemande dans le Romantisme Français." German literature, it is shown, exerted but little influence on the Romantic movement, but the essay contains much of interest and is entertaining throughout. It forms a valuable supplement to Professor Rossel's volume on the literary relations between France and Germany, which was reviewed in these columns in April last. We notice that both the authors mentioned trace to M. Brunetière the incentive to their literary investigations.

Such a communication as that of Mr. James Gairdner to the *Academy* of December 11 must give Dr. Murray pain. Here is a well-known literary man, "on the subject of the Queen's English," questioning the sense of a perfectly intelligible idiom, *for the time being*. He raises his humble protest "against a phrase which I now find of perpetual recurrence." A glance at the Oxford Dictionary would have shown him that it has been recurring for the past four centuries and a half. "The time being" is, of course, the hour which "now *is*."

For some twenty years past, geologists have been familiar with the plain of the Red River of Minnesota and North Dakota as the floor of an ancient lake, whose outlet ran southward over a slight depression in the uplands, and there cut a deep and broad channel, leading the overflow to the Mississippi, the channel now being occupied only by the water from little side streams whose combined volume forms what we call the Minnesota River. Warren Upham, as a member of the Geological Survey of Minnesota, gave the name of Agassiz to the ancient lake, and has now completed an elaborate account of it, which forms Monograph xxv. of the United States Geological Survey. As is often the case with such problems, their complexity increases with the study given to them. Instead of a single, well-defined shore line, marking a steady level of the lake, there is a remarkable succession of shore lines at low and lower levels, whose planes are not parallel to each other, but diverge northward, as if the land had been rising to the north during the lowering of the lake. A number of the shore planes unite at the southern outlet, but others stand below it, indicating that some other discharge had been discovered. The most remarkable feature in connection with the lake is that its northern border was formed by the retreating margin of the continental ice sheet. It had many fellows in this respect about the basins of the existing Great Lakes, and these will in due time probably yield up histories as marvellous as that here described.

When the Italian Government took away the Pope's temporal power, it retained the Pacca Edict, under which a duty of 20 per cent. ad valorem was collected upon "antiquities" carried out of the Papal Dominions. In a case which has lately been adjudicated by the Court of Appeals at Rome, a decision has been given that the Pacca Edict applies only to such articles as are "precious," or of exceptional value in history or art. This judgment does not advance matters, and it is much to be desired that the Italian Government will see its way to repeal the edict altogether.

—The death of Miss Anna Ticknor last year deprived the "Society to Encourage Studies at Home," familiarly known as "S. H.," of its founder and most zealous worker. It is now twenty-five years since Miss Ticknor, inspired by the success of a similar society in England, organized this association, which aimed at reaching those women who, for various reasons, were debarred from the privilege of regular education. Miss Ticknor wisely recognized that such a society, conducted by correspondence, can achieve little in the way of absolute instruction; and "guidance, criticism, and sympathy" were the watchwords of her modest and genuinely useful efforts. It is refreshing to meet with an educational association that hopes "never to get into the newspapers," and shrinks from the "ill effects of public comment and applause." A quarter of a century ago the need of such a stimulus to home-reading in out-of-the-way districts must have been far greater than in these days of university-extension lectures and numerous facilities for those who ask an agreeable and not too profound acquaintance with learning. It was therefore felt by the friends of the Society that this year its work might fitly end with the publication of the small volume before us. The description of Miss Ticknor's work and its results in 'Society to Encourage Studies at Home' (Riverside Press) will naturally be of interest chiefly to those who have been connected with the Society. The introduction is contributed by Mrs. Louis Agassiz; the book itself is mainly composed of extracts from Miss Ticknor's correspondence with the pupils, who, in 1882, numbered one thousand. No one into whose hands it falls can fail to be impressed with the unselfish devotion of the founder and chief worker in this "silent university," and the genuine success that she achieved.

—The fifty-second volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) extends from Shearman to Smirke, with a good measure of celebrities, including the poet Shelley and his wife Mary, Sheridan, the Siddonses, Algernon and Sir Philip Sidney. The notice of Shelley is encomiastic to the

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usual degree of extenuating his behavior to Harriet Westbrook, whose intellectual qualities (offsetting the plea of "incompatibility") are by no means suggested in the account of her, as they are revealed in her letters to Miss Nugent. These letters are mentioned as having "been printed separately," in a limited edition. So far as our knowledge goes, they have never been reprinted since they were first published in the *Nation* (Nos. 1249, 1250). Sir William Siemens and Henry Shrapnel (from whom came the shell bearing his name) find a place here impartially, the one a constructive, the other a destructive inventor. To the equal sky of the Dictionary is also admitted Jack Sheppard, the highwayman, who, it seems, was buried in the old churchyard of St. Martin-in-the-Fields, the present site of the National Gallery. Finally, as Dr. Murray tells of ghost-words that have haunted the dictionaries, we have in the prophetic "Mother Shipton" a mythical personage, who once more forces her way into line, if only to be discredited for ever. In fact, for practical purposes, she remains as real, say, as Timur the Tartar, or that Talleyrand to whom we ascribe all bonmots of uncertain origin. It is curious to observe how little is related (beyond the titles of his numerous linguistic works) of Walker's remodeller, Benjamin Humphrey Smart, whose 'New Critical Pronouncing Dictionary' (1836) was long the standard.

—Literary activity continues at an increasing rate in Japan, and even the outlying portions of the empire, Yezo and Formosa, have their newspapers. Of journals and periodicals started during the year 1894, as the freshly published official statistics show, the number was 518, though during the same time 506 ceased publication. Among the 814 journals and other serials that still presumably hold their own, 720 are published in Hondo, the main island. Among these are some of a very high class, both as to form, literary contents, and pictorial embellishment. The total circulation in 1894 was 367,735,426 copies. The *Asahi Shimbun* or *Morning Sun* newspaper of Osaka, conducted after the French model of *Le Petit Journal*, has the largest circle of readers. Besides capital cartoons (by a woman artist), several columns of chat and criticism, translations of foreign fiction, a *feuilleton*, telegraphic news, and home and foreign correspondence, the owners employ some of the best modern mechanical presses and appliances. Nevertheless, its place of business in this country of earthquakes is, very sensibly, in one of the old-fashioned one-storied but very roomy *yashiki* (spread-out house) of feudal days. This paper circulates in all parts of the empire, which has a population of 45,000,000 souls. In the more serious matters of copyright, Japan's literary activity is even more noticeable. In 1894 the total number of artistic and literary products which came under notice of the Department of Public Instruction was 28,212. Of these, 8,962 were classed as original works, 18,831 as volumes or pictures in a series, 191 were translations, and 228 were reprints. Judged by the number of works issued, the subjects most in favor with authors and the public were law, religion, painting, geography, astronomy, calendars and almanacs, music, engraving, pedagogy, history, agriculture, medicine, poetry, and popular songs. In romance and fiction, what was lost in the small number of books published was made up in the vastly greater relative and actual circulation. Divination still has numerous votaries, and so has "Chinese" poetry, though that constructed in Japanese style is much more voluminous and popular.

—The calendar of the Imperial University of Japan for 1896-'7 (Tokyo: Z. P. Maruya & Co.) is a booklet of 368 pages in all, giving an historical summary, the Imperial ordinances, the general regulation for the colleges of law, medicine, engineering, literature, science, agriculture, roster of students, professors, and graduates, a list of the journals, memoirs, and bulletins written by specialists and published by the University, with a map of the University grounds, which are those of the old daimio of Kaga—both ample and beautiful. The former wooden buildings have given way to edifices of modern architecture and of brick, though some are of iron and concrete. In October, 1896, the grand total of students in all departments was 1,895. Of these, 554 were in the college of law, 276 in medicine, 345 in engineering, 248 in literature, 106 in science, and 219 in agriculture; the others being special students. The actual number of graduates is 2,771, of whom 199 have died. This, considered in connection with the large number of those who have studied in foreign countries and those graduated from other learned institutions in Japan, shows a body of at least 10,000 men in the empire who have been instructed with considerable thoroughness in modern scientific methods

—In comparing the details of the courses with the themes chosen for scientific, literary, and legal theses, we are struck with the fact that the University reflects the general national feeling of the past four years. We note in this calendar a marked reaction from tendencies in full force from about 1873 to about 1893, which bade fair to denationalize Japan and to modify injuriously her spirit of self-protective independence. During this movement (since 1893) there have been some fantastic phases of Chauvinism; but, apart from these, it must be evident to the thoughtful that such a reaction has been on the whole wholesome. In every direction the thoughts of the Japanese are now being applied to interpreting their past history, conserving what is excellent, applying the principles of science to the improvement of the soil, food, habitations, every-day life, and generally to the reconstruction, in the light of science, of their civilization. The list of publications in German and English shows how admirably this work of national regeneration is proceeding. Yet the lover of literature sighs to find, amid the scores of learned publications, agricultural, chemical, medical, engineering, and the like, the one lone monograph on the language, mythology, and nomenclature of Japan, viewed in the light of Aino studies, by Basil Hall Chamberlain. Surely literature is yet to meet with higher honors in Dai Nippon.

STICKNEY'S STATE CONTROL OF TRADE.

State Control of Trade and Commerce by National or State Authority. By Albert Stickney. Baker, Voorhis & Co. 1897.

Mr. Stickney's Introduction gives a good idea of the drift of his book. He calls attention, in the first place, to the fact that recent decisions of our highest legal tribunals, especially the United States Supreme Court and the New York Court of Appeals, hold that a mere combination of common carriers, or of private property-owners, "providing for the fixing of rates and prices for their own property, by one common authority for all," constitutes a crime. These decisions are, he thinks, so hopelessly in conflict with the fundamental principles of the law of property under a modern constitutional government, that great interest attaches at the present time to an examination of the law of the subject. A short review of the history of the English and American law relating to state control of trade and commerce shows that the recent statutes on which these decisions have been based are not novelties; that they are really revivals of old attempts to protect the community against "dangers of the imagination," and that they will in time share the fate of their originals. The early statutory attempts in England took various forms. Some acts regulated prices of labor and merchandise; others, as to trade and commerce of specific kinds, were entirely prohibitory—*e.g.*, statutes prohibiting the export of gold and silver, of grain, of wool, of tools and machinery, and forbidding the departure of artificers from the kingdom to work in foreign countries. One class of acts was aimed at attempts to raise prices by "engrossing," or buying and holding in quantity with a view to subsequent sales at an advance. These statutes, had they been enforced, would have abolished the occupation of wholesale merchant and middleman, and would have compelled every producer to be his own salesman. Trade and commerce as they exist to supply the needs of any modern community could never have come into existence. In connection with these statutes there existed others, against conspiracies or combinations to raise prices of both labor and merchandise; they were part of the same general scheme of state control.

In time, all these attempts to control prices and labor were abandoned. Even in the early reports there is very little evidence of attempts on the part of the authorities to enforce them, and gradually they became obsolete. At length they were repealed altogether, and to-day in England "the law is well established that the ownership of property, of all kinds, comprises not only the right of free use (always subject to the proviso that its use is to be in such a manner as not to interfere with the rights of others), but also the right of free sale, at the will of the owner, whether the property be labor or merchandise, and whether the owner's will be exercised separately or in combination with other individuals."

In this country, with some early exceptions, there was, until recent times, virtually no attempt on the part of the Government to interfere with freedom of contract in private employment. The present widespread alarm over "Trusts" and "monopolies" recalls the vague primitive dread of oppression through an excessive raising of prices, and this although, as a matter of fact, owing to the railroad and telegraph and their effect in making the markets of the whole world one, all danger from any attempt to enhance prices has been for ever removed. This alarm has produced the new legislative craze for interfering with freedom of contract. Our anti-Trust and anti-monopoly statutes consequently represent

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a revival, at the end of the nineteenth century, of statutes which reflect the ideas prevalent in England in the time of Edward III.

This view of the subject, it will be seen, confines the attention to private property. Mr. Stickney insists upon the validity of the distinction between private property and employments and a class of property and employments of a public nature. Control of these, both as to the use of the property and as to the prices to be obtained for such use, he deems essential. This distinction separates from ordinary private property all companies exercising a public franchise, such as railroads, telephone, and telegraph companies, gas and electric-light companies, ferry companies. It is substantially the distinction laid down by the Supreme Court of the United States, that the Legislature must control all property "affected with a public interest."

We must say that, in our view, this distinction, notwithstanding the vast array of authority by which it can be supported, is unsound. To mention only a single reason: there is not, in nature or in use, any line between the two kinds of private property. If the attempt is made to find it in the fact that some property consists in franchises directly derived from the state, the difficulty is that, in modern times, every species of property takes on a corporate form. The business of selling books or clothes may be carried on by a corporation with a franchise resembling at many essential points that of a railroad. If the line is supposed to divide property which meets a public want from other species of property, we can only say that every species of property the value of which arises from use must meet a public want to yield the owner a return. Transportation is not any more a public necessity than a roof over one's head; yet the same courts which set their faces sternly against a railroad's right to fix its own rates, concede without hesitation the right of the owner of a house to ask what rent for it he pleases. We should, in fact, be inclined to go much further than Mr. Stickney—to obliterate this distinction, and maintain that the freedom from state control which the owner of property ought to enjoy in a rational system is absolute within the field of all reasonable contracts; that the state ought to interfere only in cases of clearly proved extortion and oppression; and that then the interference should be for the occasion only. The theory that the state can interfere whenever it can be shown that property is "affected with a public interest" would necessarily, it seems to us, end in a general regulation of all prices.

Nor do we find the distinction in Mr. Stickney's historical review of the development of the English law. In the *Mogul* steamship case, decided in 1892, in which the whole matter was thoroughly canvassed, it was held that a combination of carriers to keep up rates of transportation and suppress competition was legal. This was a case of public, not private employment, if there be any such distinction. We do not find any evidence in this book that the English Government makes any attempt to regulate transportation rates in general.

It seems to us, on the contrary, that it is an erroneous distinction introduced by our own courts in the last twenty-five years, in order to find a *locus standi* for populistic legislation, and that it has broken down in its application. In proof of this we should cite the leading American case cited by Mr. Stickney to show the nature of the distinction, viz., Munn vs. Illinois. In that case the Supreme Court of the United States upheld the right of the State of Illinois to fix by statute grain-elevator rates, "it being the conceded fact that the elevators were private property." In order to make this case illustrate the law of "public employment," Mr. Stickney is forced to insist that the elevators had "become virtually part of the public highways."

In Mr. Stickney's view the distinction in question was successfully maintained by the courts down to a few years since, and the main thesis of his book is to demonstrate that the recent decision of the New York Court of Appeals in People vs. Sheldon, and the judgment of the Supreme Court at Washington in the Trans-Missouri case, were at war with all hitherto recognized legal principles. For the acute argument by which he reaches this conclusion we must refer the reader to the book. The sum of the matter is that, after 600 years, the highest tribunal of the country has laid it down that a mere contract to fix rates or prices, which interferes with nobody and injures no one, is a crime because the Legislature has called it one; thus reintroducing in the high-noon of our boasted civilization one of the most barbarous delusions of our uninstructed ancestors. Mr. Stickney seems to think this a sudden plunge; we, on the contrary, think it but the last result of a process which began with decisions of twenty-five years since; if not counteracted, it must certainly end in making the judiciary a subservient tool of the Legislature and in destroying every vestige of common right.

Mr. Stickney's standing at the bar is such as to make his discussion of the main question authoritative. Especially in the present state of confusion on the subject of legislative interference with private right is such a contribution to discussion as this welcome. It is literally true that the Supreme Court, by a majority of one, has just decided that Congress may make the most innocent act a crime, and the question now is whether this position is to become a permanent part of our system. No one can examine Mr. Stickney's book without perceiving the magnitude of the interests at stake. We have no room for quotation; but we may call the reader's attention especially to the economical statements on which his legal theory is based and which strike us as masterly. They are really an essential part of the legal reasoning.

THE LIBERATION OF FRANCE.

M. Thiers: Le Comte de Saint-Vallier: Le Général de Manteuffel. Libération du Territoire. 1871-1873. Documents Inédits. Par Henri Doniol, Membre de l'Institut. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 1897.

Among the woes of France in 1871 the obligation of cash payment was not the worst. The loss of territory was much more keenly felt than the loss of the milliards, and article viii. of the Peace of Frankfort probably inflicted, for the time at least, the deepest wound of all. To have soldiers of one's own race forcibly quartered upon one has long been accounted a hardship by the nations of the Continent, as it was by the English in 1628. Thiers had much to suffer in the course of his negotiations, but nothing could have grieved him more than to admit German claims of garrison till the last payment—that is, till March 1, 1875. One need not enumerate the inconveniences of such an arrangement to the French, apart from its insult to the national pride. On the economic side they were enormous and of wide application. Thiers has sometimes been charged with wastefulness in anticipating his payments, but even a Bonapartist editor like Cassagnac could hardly withhold from him his highest title, "Liberator of the Territory."

M. Henri Doniol, in the very important monograph before us, confines his attention to a chain of political intercourse which began with the signing of peace and extended to the evacuation of France at Conflans-et-Jarny more than two years later. Public attention has usually been fastened upon the financial side of the indemnity question—upon what one may call its Pouyer-Quertier aspect. M. Doniol does not profess to throw fresh light on the expedients devised for procuring the money. With the aid of a full correspondence carried on by several of the leading personages concerned, he investigates the relations of the Provisional Government and the German Empire in so far as they deal with anticipation of payment and reduction of the period of occupation. Under his treatment the negotiations assume almost the color of personal contract. The number of determining individual factors is brought down to a minimum. M. Doniol rarely finds it necessary to go outside a little *parti carré:* on the one side Thiers and the Comte de Saint-Vallier; on the other, Bismarck and Gen. Manteuffel.

Of these the interest attaching to the officer last named is by far the most notable. With respect to Bismarck, M. Doniol's sources of information are probably those of all the world. The energy, suavity, and jauntiness of Thiers are somewhat accentuated by his new documents. But not till this moment has the extent of the service rendered to their own countries and to the cause of European peace by Saint-Vallier and Manteuffel been fully recognized. Saint-Vallier's long and creditable diplomatic career is on record, but the extent of his physical disabilities has never been appreciated, nor the discouragements which beset his path during the term of his residence at Compiègne and Nancy. Manteuffel is remembered for his part in the war—perhaps best remembered for his prompt action in the southeast, when Bourbaki's army was forced into Switzerland. The Emperor's warm friendship designated him, in spite of Bismarck's coolness, to the command of the army of occupation, in which position he contributed materially to smoothing the way for a return to the amenities of normal intercourse. He seems never to have forgotten that France was a sister nation in distress. For complete absence of rancor, for sedulous avoidance of the causes of friction, for tender consideration, even, he deserves honorable mention among the worthies of modern warfare. One might easily forget that he was a soldier and put him down as a philanthropist. He lived through much abuse from the German press in those days of mænadic boasting. Secure in the esteem of his master, he lent himself to the task of hastening the evacuation, thereby assuaging the lot of the vanquished while he secured his country's acknowledged due. Respect for Thiers, belief in the sta-

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bility of the republic and in its honesty, and sympathy for the French character, inclined him towards friendliness of action. He was equally frank in character and utterance.

A citation from one of many letters to Thiers will show in what spirit the German conceived his task. The following words were written at Compiègne in July, 1871, at a moment when some friction had arisen concerning the payment of the first half-milliard. Manteuffel, after helping to render an explanation easy, thus disclaimed having merited any special thanks:

"Votre Excellence est trop bonne. Qu'ai-je donc fait? Rien que mon devoir. Quelle était la situation? Mon roi m'a donné le commandement de son armée en France. Moi, j'ai dans ma jeunesse étudié l'histoire de la France; j'ai de même beaucoup lu M. Thiers; je connais le caractère français. Donc, après avoir fait la connaissance de Votre Excellence et de plusieurs membres de son ministère, j'ai gagné la conviction que ce caractère est représenté dans le gouvernement actuel de la France, et je me suis rendu vis-à-vis de mon gouvernement garant de la loyauté française. J'ai écrit que le payement des quatre premiers demi-milliards serait accéléré de manière qu'en peu de mois le chiffre des troupes allemandes en France serait réduit au nombre de 50,000 hommes stipulé dans la paix. . . . Tout à coup arrivent des difficultés de vérification matérielle du payement du premier demi-milliard; mais Votre Excellence écrit que la somme est payée! Aurais-je agi dans l'esprit de notre convention verbale basée sur de la loyauté mutuelle, si j'avais gardé pour moi cette déclaration du Chef du Pouvoir Exécutif? Je devais en faire part à mon souverain. Je le fais, et Sa Majesté Impériale peut prouver devant l'Europe qu'elle . . . a confiance dans chaque mot écrit de Votre Excellence."

One is not surprised that a French historian is ready to do justice by such a German.

In the autumn of the same year the Pouyer-Quertier convention was signed at Berlin, and the release of six departments was among its first effects. Manteuffel gave up his command for a short time to take a holiday at Gastein, leaving Gen. Stosch in his place. Headquarters were shifted from Compiègne to Nancy, where an incident soon occurred which showed of what material consequence to the French was the individuality of the commander-in-chief. Stosch began by quarrelling with the intendant, Blondeau, over some questions arising from the maintenance of the troops. Personal relations between the two were broken off, and Stosch permitted one of his colonels to eject the Mayor of Nancy with wife and family from his own house till some blankets for his caserne had been provided. Manteuffel returned at the end of October to find St.-Vallier engaged in an attempt to secure redress for the damage and indignity inflicted. Stosch was immovable in his contention against Blondeau, and when Manteuffel sought to heal the breach, his second appealed the case direct to Bismarck, with a view to rendering the commander in France subject to the Chancellor and even to the officials of the Chancellor's department, such as Arnim.

This incident illustrates one class of irritations to which Manteuffel was subject. Another and more trying source of discomfort to him was the lack of reserve shown by French Ministers and the French press at critical junctures when he was doing his best for the Versailles Government. A striking instance of his admirable temper is afforded by the manner in which he tolerated a blazing indiscretion of Pouyer-Quertier. The evacuation of the forts on the right bank of the Seine was under negotiation. Matters were moving well. Manteuffel had communicated to St.-Vallier, under seal of secrecy, intelligence of the most vital character. It was to be conveyed to Thiers, but St.-Vallier was responsible for safeguarding it from the public ear. Through Pouyer-Quertier, however, it leaked out and found its way to the *Soir* before the end of twenty-four hours. For a moment Manteuffel was intensely exasperated, compromised as he was in the eyes of Berlin by an undoubted *faux pas*. Then he recovered his composure, and could find it in his heart to sympathize with St.-Vallier, whose peace of mind had been destroyed by connection with an apparent breach of faith:

"Monsieur le Chef du Pouvoir Exécutif, la situation est trop tendue pour l'aggraver encore par des susceptibilités personnelles. Je prie Votre Excellence d'être convaincu que vu ces circonstances je serai, tant qu'il le sera possible, plus conciliant que jamais dans tout ce qui regarde l'armée d'occupation. Je ne m'en fais pas de mérite, c'est en même temps l'intérêt de mon pays qui me dicte cette conduite. Je finis ma lettre en adressant la prière à Votre Excellence de ne pas s'occuper de ces articles du *Soir*, et de dire au comte de Saint-Vallier, s'il vous en écrit, qu'il possède toujours et malgré cette publication mon estime et toute ma confiance."

The moral value of a friend like Manteuffel was hardly second to the practical value. The Provisional Government was overjoyed to find some one in high quarters who thoroughly trusted it. Confidence was generally felt in the ability of France to pay her indebtedness; the crux of the situation was her willingness. The Parisian newspapers were far too ready to soothe the broken pride of their readers with such rhetoric as: "We will pay the first two milliards in cash, the balance with the mitrailleuse." On the other hand, the German press in 1871 was full of distrustful murmurings. The sight and touch of the milliards in the end soothed it, but so long as there was a chance to remain sceptical concerning the performance of French undertakings, it wrested every untoward circumstance or rumor the wrong way. Alternate volleys of journalistic diatribe, however, were of slight moment after Bismarck abandoned all idea of a Bonapartist restoration. His growing conviction that Thiers could and would redeem the Versailles pledges smoothed the way for a reconciliation between him and Manteuffel. The Chancellor's change of disposition was soon confirmed by Arnim's intrigues, and in September, 1872, Manteuffel, after spending night upon night with him at Gastein, could announce confidentially to his French friends that unless the political situation in France materially changed (a glance at Gambetta), evacuation would be hastened even more rapidly than could be gathered from the treaty of June 20.

While the personal friction between Bismarck and Manteuffel lessened rapidly after a harmony of political opinion had been reached, both found themselves annoyed by the proceedings of the German Ambassador at Paris. The full extent of Arnim's negotiations with the Imperialists was revealed to the public, including Thiers, only when they had ceased to have any bearing on the liberation of the territory. We are not here concerned with his personal character, his ambitions, or his downfall. It is enough that he was at the other pole from Manteuffel in public policy, and was by the leverage of his office in a position to undo much of what was being effected at Nancy by daily intercourse between the General and Saint-Vallier. Delay and misrepresentation were his two principal weapons against the Provisional Government. M. Doniol has little new intelligence to offer concerning his relations with Bismarck. They were amply disclosed at the trial and have often been the subject of discussion since. But one is interested to note how soon he fell under suspicion at Nancy, and how Manteuffel's attitude towards France was confirmed by his conviction that, were Arnim left to himself, the honorable conclusion of a solemn agreement would be thwarted by the trickery of a wirepuller. Having failed in his intrigues, Arnim was yet anxious to set his name to the final treaty of 1873. When Bismarck snubbed him by arranging everything with Thiers through Gontaut, and by himself signing the papers in Berlin instead of permitting Arnim to sign them in Paris, there must have been much quiet satisfaction at Nancy. Exactly one month after the question of Verdun or Belfort had been settled, Manteuffel gave a birthday banquet in honor of Thiers. Bismarck's telegram of congratulation was a seal of approval upon what the commanding officer had done for the cause of national reconciliation in the face of Arnim's secret enmity and the blatherskite of German editors.

M. Doniol makes a long catalogue of the annoyances, grave and petty, that had to be mastered in the course of negotiations. We shall add only one obstacle to those we have already cited. Gambetta was a bugbear at Berlin, and the fear that he might supplant Thiers was countenanced by numerous debates in the Assembly. The German military party used it constantly as an argument, and it was of more real moment than ordinary political or stock-exchange forensics. All through 1872 the danger arising from his harangues took that prominent place in diplomatic correspondence which had been occupied in the previous year by questions relating to the stated payments. Public speeches of Thiers against "la campagne oratoire à laquelle se livrait le tribun" strengthened Manteuffel's dispatches to Berlin, and a few months showed that Gambetta was out of the Presidential race. Of greater weight than assurances was the prompt discharge of the indebtedness. So long as the money was forthcoming at proper intervals, it was obvious that the nation was not convinced, though it might be tickled, by Chauvinist eloquence.

We could wish that M. Doniol had vouchsafed a bibliographical note concerning his sources. He has been empowered to use very valuable material, and his temper, though not judicial, is tolerably fair. We feel bound to call prominent attention to the merits of his style. Were he less prone to talk about what "le juge futur" will think of the Franco-German war, we should say that he had observed all the canons of good literary taste and expression.

The War of Greek Independence, 1821-1833. By W. Alison Phillips, late Scholar of Merton College, Senior Scholar of St. John's College, Oxford. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

That the Greeks should have succeeded in securing their independence, and in being recognized as a new European state, seems

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more surprising than ever, in the light of recent events. The Concert of Europe of 1897 is a very good counterpart of the Holy Alliance of 1822. The appearance of an impartial, adequate, and readable account of what the Greeks call the struggle of their regeneration is therefore timely. Mr. Phillips has drawn from the best sources, Mendelssohn-Bartholdy, Finlay, Gordon, and Prokesch-Osten, and writes with the fresh interest which recent events in Greece have contributed to inspire and increase. He might have mentioned Tricoupis's 'History of the Greek Revolution,' a classic of the modern Greek language, and Pouqueville's first-hand 'Histoire de la Régénération de la Grèce.' But the compilation gives abundant evidence that the author has digested his material, and he has presented it in an attractive form. We are made to realize that the rebellion of the Greeks succeeded because the Greeks were unalterably determined not to live longer under Turkish rule. This determination did not imply that, at the time of the outbreak, their condition was worse than it had been in previous periods. On the contrary, it was better. The Greeks were not very badly treated, in Greece. They lived a fairly comfortable life. But the very relaxing of the severity of oppression hastened the rebellion.

The interest which attaches to the Greek Revolution is in no wise temporary. It was a remarkable struggle, and there was a wonderful variety in the characters of the persons who were prominent in it. There may be mentioned the Phanariotes, Ypsilanti and Mavrocordatos; the Corfiote, Capodistrias, who resigned the position of Minister of Foreign Affairs at St. Petersburg to accept the presidency of the Greek State, and to die by assassination while attempting to organize a government. Next we may name Ali Pasha, the infamous tyrant of Yanina, and Colettes, Ali's physician, subsequently, for a brief time, at the head of the provisional government. Another graduate from Ali Pasha's school was Karaiskakis, transformed from a wild, treacherous brigand to a great national leader. The two commanding figures of the Peloponnesus were Kolokotronis and Mavromichalis. Marco Botzaris was the hero of Missolonghi. From the islands, we mention one name only, but that of the noblest character whom modern Greece has produced — Admiral Miaulis. Lord Byron may fitly close the list, for his sacrifices and, finally, his death at Missolonghi had immense influence in strengthening the philhellenic sentiment in Europe which finally compelled the recognition of the Greek kingdom.

The struggle also abounded in incidents of dramatic interest. We will not dwell upon the hideous massacres of Tripolitza, where Greeks slaughtered 2,000 captives, or of Scio, where Turks butchered 27,000 Christians. Besides such horrors, there were the novel campaigns with fire-ships, under the intrepid Canaris, by which the Greeks fairly scared the Turks out of the Archipelago. Repeatedly, too, in the course of the war, Greeks, when hope of defence was gone, fired a pistol into the powder magazine and overwhelmed besiegers and besieged in the explosion. To this war belongs, too, the siege of Missolonghi, which will always be cited as an example of a heroism fully Spartan. Mr. Phillips points out that there was little to choose, in respect to barbarity, between the Turks and the Greeks. Signal instances of bravery on the part of Greeks, or of dogged endurance on the part of Turks, abound. Rarely was ability in handling troops shown on either side. The Greeks seldom preoccupied a pass, and the Turks rarely followed up an advantage which they had gained. The ablest continuous land operation was Ibrahim Pasha's invasion and reconquest of the Morea, in 1824. The diplomacy of each of the four great Powers steadily opposed the aspirations of the Greeks. But, in France and in England, a strengthening popular opinion helped the Greeks, and finally it was Russia which, from selfish policy, took the step which led to the recognition of Greek independence. In his glance at recent history, Mr. Phillips is inclined to believe that Lord Salisbury's diplomacy had kindly designs for the Greeks, if they had been willing to accept the autonomy of Crete, instead of demanding the union of the island with Greece. Greece might well have been content with what would have come to her in the working out of Salisbury's larger plans.

It is impossible to lay down such a book as this without asking the question, whether Greece has still a future, or whether her significance, as an independent state, is ended. The present condition of Greece, however pitiable, is incomparably better than that of the country sixty years ago, when the monarchy was established. Then the land was almost a desert, the people were a half-million famished peasants, with only the slightest varnish of civilization. Now, in addition to an increase of population of at least three-fold, the Greeks have the organization and institutions of a civilized state, and, though their national career has been full of disappointment to those who have expected too much of them, their worst faults have always been the same: vanity, impatience, lack of thoroughness, and aversion to steady toil. If it were possible that the recent disaster could lead them to devote their attention to an honest and efficient management of their own affairs, Greece would still have her day of influence in the Orient.

The Romance of the Irish Stage; with Pictures of the Irish Capital in the Eighteenth Century. By J. Fitzgerald Molloy. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

Mr. Molloy was not very happy in his selection of a title, for, in spite of occasional brilliant episodes, there is little that is romantic in the generally calamitous and often humiliating story that he has to tell, while the main part of his theatrical history is devoted necessarily to the fortunes of the old Smock Alley, Aungier Street, and Crow Street Theatres of Dublin. Nor has he been able to unearth any new material of importance in his researches in this restricted field. He furnishes a consecutive and, doubtless, accurate record of the disastrous rivalry which brought one manager after another to ruin, and of the extraordinary expedients which were employed to attract the public to the playhouses; yet tells practically nothing that has not been told over and over again in the various theatrical biographies, while, in general outline, his narrative corresponds very closely with the history of the English stage during the same period.

Beyond doubt Ireland contributed an extraordinary number of brilliant stars to the dramatic constellations of the eighteenth century. Few names have brighter lustre than those of Peg Woffington, Charles Macklin, Tom Sheridan, Henry Mossop, Spranger Barry, whose voice in tragic passages was described as "harmony in an uproar," Dorothy Jordan, Richard Daly, and the beautiful Miss Bellamy, all of whom won some of their greatest triumphs among their enthusiastic compatriots, and all of whom, of course, figure prominently in Mr. Fitzgerald's pages. He writes of them in a vivacious and agreeable manner, but does not present them in any new light, and makes no attempt to speculate upon their respective excellences. His work is anecdotal, not critical, and, notwithstanding its array of dates and financial statistics, can be commended only as a collection of entertaining gossip. Of sober reflection it is entirely destitute, but it is sprinkled plentifully with characteristic and humorous stories, most of them venerable, if all good of their kind, which afford a lively picture of the social conditions then prevailing.

By far the greater part of these two volumes is occupied with illustrations of the so-called gayety and luxury of the ante-Union period. Those were the days of high play and hard drinking in England as well as in Ireland, and Dublin lived well up to the fashion. Mr. Fitzgerald dilates upon the recklessness, extravagance, and improvidence of all classes of society without any apparent appreciation of the melancholy significance of it all. Certainly, life then was not without excitement, but it is just as tolerable, even if it be rather duller, to-day, when bestial drunkenness with mock religious accompaniments is no longer regarded as jocose, and duelling is recognized as a savage absurdity. Mr. Fitzgerald seems to imagine, although he does not say so specifically, that the excesses of which he speaks were peculiar to Ireland, but as a matter of fact, it is almost needless to say, they were epidemic throughout the British Isles. It is probably true, however, that the Dublin theatres suffered more than the English from the license of the time. Being dependent upon a smaller and more impulsive community and the viceregal patent, they were compelled to truckle to every variety of social, religious, and political prejudice, and existed only on terms of great artistic degradation, even when their performances were most brilliant; being, in the most bitter sense, the servants of the King as well as of the public. It was no uncommon thing for a manager to be forced to make a public apology under penalty of having his theatre pulled about his ears. There are few more disgraceful episodes in theatrical history than the treatment accorded to poor Tom Sheridan, in connection with his production of the luckless "Mahomet."

Of this incident, as of many others, Mr. Fitzgerald gives a full and interesting account. He is a little diffuse and inconsequent, but he is never tedious, and his book will beguile an idle hour very pleasantly. For purposes of study and reference, however, it is useless, having no index.

Nineteenth-Century Questions. By James Freeman Clarke. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

Dr. Clarke selected the papers in this volume for publication shortly before his death, and in the main they justify his approbation. They are in three sets, and they increase in interest from the first, "Literary

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Studies," to the last, "Historical and Biographical." The midway set is "Religious and Philosophical." Of the literary studies the most important is "Did Shakspere Write Bacon's Works?" It turns the tables in an effective manner, showing that the greater was likelier to include the less than the less to include the greater. The religious and philosophical articles are polemical, and already "Why I am not a Free-Religionist" would sound strangely in a Unitarian conference, though Dr. Clarke was accounted a radical among Unitarians forty years ago.

The historical and biographical papers are particularly interesting as touching things in which Dr. Clarke had a personal acquaintance and a deep and vital interest. Thus, he writes of Carlyle as one of the first of those who felt the stress of his early inspiration, and as one of those who were most grieved by his decline and fall. He does not, however, sufficiently indicate the extent to which the germs of Carlyle's later brutalities existed in his earlier and earliest work. He is singularly inappreciative of that humanity in Voltaire which was so lacking in Carlyle. To Harriet Martineau is measured praise and blame in about equal parts. A fearful catalogue is made of her assaults on various people in her 'Autobiography.' He thinks she was needlessly afraid of being mobbed, especially in Louisville, Ky., where "it was easier at that time to speak against slavery than in Boston." This testimony of Dr. Clarke is that of a resident of Louisville, where he had his first parish. He also brings his personal knowledge to bear upon some of Mrs. Chapman's additions to Miss Martineau's book, and he "points with pride" to the "Protest against American Slavery," no mealy-mouthed affair, which he wrote and 173 Unitarian ministers signed when there were not more than 250 all told. But far the most interesting and valuable paper is his review of Wilson's 'Rise and Fall of the Slave Power,' which is less a review than a short history from his own point of view, and we could hardly have a better. The account of the early abolition meetings is at once critical and sympathetic. It is "important if true" that "Mr. Garrison always maintained that his converts were most likely to be made among those whose consciences had been educated by the Church and the Bible." Dr. Clarke's psychology of Southern bitterness is not that of Dr. Leonard W. Bacon, ascribing it to Nat. Turner's insurrection, nor that of Dr. Lyman Abbott, who fathers it on the abolitionists, but this, that the pro-slavery Southerner was subconsciously in the wrong; for nothing ever makes a man more bitter than to go counter to the deepest motions of his private heart.

The Conception of God. By Josiah Royce, Joseph Le Conte, G. H. Howison, and Sidney Edward Mezes. The Macmillan Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. xxxviii, 354.

On some day in 1895 Professor Royce delivered an address before the Philosophical Union at the University of California, which occupies fifty pages of this volume. This address was devoted to a restatement and simplification of the argument for the existence of a God given in Professor Royce's earlier book 'The Religious Aspect of Philosophy.' The argument substantially is, that the mere existence of experience shows that something exists, no matter how incoherent that experience may be. That experience, with whatever its existence involves, has a whole; and therefore there is an all-embracing being, which is all-knowing. Then, following out this line of reflection, the other attributes of Deity are regarded as deducible from omniscience. Of course, the other disputants, Professors Le Conte, Howison, and Mezes, were familiar with this argument in the earlier form in which its author had broached it. Following Professor Royce, Professor Mezes presented certain objections, which, as printed here, occupy a dozen pages. He substantially admits Prof. Royce's metaphysics, but is unable to see that the existence of a good God is thereby proved. Prof. Le Conte followed, and, in remarks of about the same length, urged, in very simple eloquence, the existence of a soul of the world, as harmonizing with our knowledge of nature and with the theory of evolution. The debate was closed by an attack upon the argument by Professor Howison, of equal length with the address that set it forth, from the standpoint of a Berkeleyan idealism. Prof. Howison, however, does not explicitly state his own theory. It appears that there were subsequent private discussions among the disputants, which had the excellent result of inducing Prof. Royce to write a supplementary essay that fills considerably more than half the volume, which is thus two-thirds of his writing. An introduction of thirty-eight pages, by Professor Howison, resumes the course of the disputation, and informs us that it resulted, in accordance with the time-honored custom of debate, whether philosophical or political, in all parties retaining their original opinions. The Supplementary Essay treats chiefly of the principle of individuation, and this, even more than the other parts of the book, is of decided value as a line of reasoning concerning logical and logico-metaphysical matters.

For few men will the book have any practical religious importance. In the eyes of the majority of modern logicians, religious metaphysics for the most part falls into two logical sins, which are far worse than fallacies. In the first place, it violates that logical rule which may be said to supersede all others with an imperial sway; namely, owing to the power of genuine scientific reasoning to correct itself—that is, to correct its own previous conclusions by the admission of additional evidence, to correct its very premises, as it constantly does in the most exact sciences, and even to correct its own fallacies, of which there are many historical examples—and owing to the fact that this scientific procedure is nothing but the self-development of man's original impulse of curiosity or interest, it may be said that the only one thing absolutely indispensable to the discovery of truth is the perfect sincerity and earnestness of the endeavor to get one's errors corrected and be set right. But the religious philosophers are not striving to get set right, but to defend a foregone conclusion, and, as history shows, by their mutual conflicts they attain only the imposing persuasions for which they strive, and not the truth for which they do not strive. It has been as often remarked that the religious metaphysicians usually commit another logical fault, that of totally misunderstanding the nature of necessary reasoning. Metaphysics has always been an ape of geometry. But nowadays geometers no longer regard the postulates of geometry as axioms, but merely as hypotheses. All that necessary reasoning can do is to keep an initial hypothesis consistent with itself; it cannot prove any matter of fact. But the religious metaphysicians seek thus either absolutely to hoist themselves by their boot-straps, or at least to very much increase the height of their jump. Starting with no premise except such as every man knows, they seek to make this take the place of the special religious experience upon which Christianity professes to be founded. Since Hegelianism was exploded, the world will not believe that philosophy (that is, so much of science as can be inferred from the common experience of all men) can do the work of the special sciences, each of which is founded on some department of experience, to be undergone only upon the fulfilment of laborious conditions.

The question to which Royce's Supplementary Essay is mainly devoted has an intimate connection with this frequently urged objection to metaphysics. The world of possibilities, in which necessary reasoning holds a solitary sway, is a world of generals. You can no more suppose an individual horse than you can wish for an individual horse. You can suppose a pseudo-individual—for example, a vague individual—just as you can wish for one horse and no more. Yet even this you can do only by the aid of a real experience. The world of existences to which truth relates, and in which necessary reasoning is out of place, is a world of individuals. The question for metaphysics is, therefore, how deep into the nature of things does the distinction between the general and the individual go. Prof. Royce comments upon what Aquinas and Duns Scotus have to say upon this subject, which was the leading topic of logico-metaphysical discussion from the middle of the thirteenth to the middle of the fourteenth century, say during the period of the decorated Gothic architecture. Duns Scotus, one of the ablest logicians that ever lived, was the principal doctor of that period to hold virtually the proposition that metaphysics has nothing decisive to say concerning religious questions, which must be left to religious experience or special information, or concerning special science, which must be left to the appropriate department of experience. "Non potest probari Deum esse vivum." See this and some dozens of similar propositions in his 'Tractatus de Creditis.' But if pure reasoning is thus impotent as to existence, the concrete world cannot be a mere solidification of the world of ideas. In harmony, therefore, with that view of demonstrative reasoning, he held that the principle of individuation was a certain "positing mode of being" (*positiva entitas*). This was not very explicit, but it was important as showing that the individuality was something utterly different from anything else. Throughout the writings of Scotus, not merely in the famous discussion concerning the third distinction of the second book of the 'Sentences,' but wherever the question of individuality is approached (as in the 'Questiones Subtilissimæ') we see its peculiarity insisted upon; yet Prof. Royce has read Scotus through such spectacles that he adduces him as an authority in favor of his own views. But Royce's speculations burningly approach the truth, and become most interesting when he connects individuation

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with will. This is an important step for one who has always been an absolute idealist in the Hegelian sense; for the moment that the phenomenon of will, in its strictly individual character, is given its due place in philosophy, though a sort of absolute psychism may survive, a seed of death would seem to be implanted in the Hegelian system. Here is the keynote to this highly important contribution to logico-metaphysical thought:

"We have seen that the completion of the unity of Absolute Consciousness demands the presence of a factor not separate from thought and experience, yet not definable in terms either of bare thought or of the data of immediate experience, in so far as they are merely felt or are present as the merely sensuous fulfilment of thought. This new factor we have defined as will. We have seen that it does not form merely one of the contents of experience to which thought refers, but determines the world which fulfils thought to be this world rather than any of the other of the abstractly possible, but not genuinely possible worlds."

The last words indicate that Prof. Royce is still unwilling to admit an element of blind force in the universe. Nor does he make much of the intrinsically dualistic character of will.

Memorials of William C. Bond, Director of the Harvard College Observatory, and of his son, George P. Bond. By Edward S. Holden. San Francisco: Murdoch; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 12mo, pp. 291.

Prof. Holden, with the aid of members of the Bond family, by whom most of the material was supplied, has here brought out a little book which will prove interesting to the general reader and important in the history of American science. American astronomy may be said to have come into an independent existence sixty years ago, and Bond was one of its pioneers. Like most born astronomers, he began trying what he could do in astronomical work at an early age. His first instruments were fashioned by himself, and were, of course, of the rudest description. Later, when he owned a small house, a huge granite block to support his transit instrument rose through the centre of the parlor, the ceiling of which was intersected by a meridian opening. In 1838 his well-established reputation led to his being engaged by the Navy Department to make observations for use in connection with the Wilkes exploring expedition to the Southern hemisphere. In the year following he accepted an invitation from President Quincy to connect himself with Harvard College, the only inducement offered being a residence and improved opportunities for his scientific work. The erection of the Harvard Observatory three years later afforded him for the first time facilities of the best class, of which he availed himself to initiate the long series of observations and researches which have raised the establishment to its present rank.

A curious historic circumstance connected with the early history of the Washington Observatory is obscurely alluded to in a footnote by G. P. Bond on page 23. That some project for placing a civilian astronomer in charge of this institution had been urged when it was founded, first came out through a remark in a letter of Maury to a friend, which was not published till after his death:

"You know I did not want the place, and only decided to keep it when I heard it had been promised to a civilian, under the plea that no one in the navy was fit for it. I then went to Mason . . . and told him he must stand by me. He did so, and though I had never seen an instrument of the kind before, and had no one with me who had, I was determined to ask no advice or instruction from the savants, but to let it be out and out a navy work."

It would seem from the note in question that the civilian here alluded to was Bond.

George P. Bond, the son and successor of William, had many of the characteristics of his father, and was more fortunate in having an early mathematical training. He was an industrious though not brilliant observer, and his two or three papers on mathematical astronomy are of high merit—one of them, indeed, may be called classic, as it contained the first development of one of the methods of "special perturbations" still in extensive use. This method was shortly afterwards independently worked out by Encke of Berlin, who, however, publicly acknowledged Bond's priority as soon as his attention was called to Bond's paper. A letter of Encke to Bond apologizing for his ignorance of the latter's work is found on p. 153.

The two men, father and son, were intimately associated with two capital improvements in practical astronomy. One of these is the system of registering the moment of an observation by electricity on a revolving cylinder; the other the application of photography to astronomy. But, although Bond seems to have been almost a pioneer in astronomical photography, the credit of first applying it to the practical purposes of celestial measurement on a large scale must still rest with Rutherfurd. The modest and retiring disposition of the two men was not conducive to public notoriety during their lives; and their work was characterized by patience, persistence, and good judgment rather than by brilliancy.

The Italic Dialects. By R. S. Conway. In two volumes. Cambridge, England: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1897.

The study of the Italic dialects—meaning by Italic the ancient dialects of Italy, sisters of the Latin—has made remarkable progress within the last five years, and this is due in large degree to the teaching and inspiration of Prof. Brugmann of Leipzig, to whom Prof. Conway has dedicated his stately volumes. For many years Brugmann has made the interpretation of the Umbrian remains a feature of his *Sprachwissenschaftliche Gesellschaft*, and in 1891, when it fell to him to assign the subject for the first prize of the philosophical faculty, a statistical and comparative treatment of the Oscan vowel system was requested. This brought out two treatises, both of which were published in 1892 and contained a number of new discoveries. At about the same time a complete grammar of the Oscan-Umbrian dialects was announced by a Swiss scholar, Von Planta. Von Planta was also a member of Brugmann's Gesellschaft some six years before, and had been encouraged to continue his study of the Italic dialects. But he gave no sign of further activity, and at the time when the subject for the prize essay was assigned, Prof. Brugmann was not aware that he had been quietly but persistently at work along the same line. Still, only good resulted from this apparent glut of products in a field which had long been neglected. Some of the most important new results were vouched for by their discovery by all three authors, and each work had its own special merits.

But another desideratum, a new collection of the material, had not yet been supplied, and it was also in 1892 that the first announcement was made of 'The Italic Dialects,' by R. S. Conway, who had also been a participant in Brugmann's Gesellschaft for a short period. For the Umbrian, to be sure, the material was still practically restricted to the celebrated Iguvinian tables discovered at Gubbio in the fifteenth century, and the text of these is perfectly clear and well reproduced in the photographs published in connection with Bréal's edition. For the other dialects the various publications of the Russian Zvetaieff were in use. But where the reading was doubtful, as was not infrequently the case, the facsimiles of Zvetaieff were felt to be unsatisfactory guides to the establishment of the text. Moreover, a considerable number of new Oscan inscriptions had come to light and been edited in scattered articles.

In Prof. Conway's work which now lies before us we have a complete collection of all the material, inscriptional or otherwise, upon which our knowledge of the Italic dialects rests. The text of nearly all the inscriptions is based upon autopsy, made in the light of previous readings and conjectures. It may be mentioned here that the second volume of Von Planta's grammar, which appeared at the beginning of the year, is supplemented by a new collection of the inscriptions. These texts are also based upon autopsy, in some cases double, the author having made two trips to Italy for the purpose. But Von Planta's collection has not made Conway's book any the less welcome. Aside from the superior advantage of two pairs of eyes and two heads over one, the two collections are different in scope. That of Von Planta is a compact series of texts furnished as a supplement to a very comprehensive and complete grammar of the dialects. With Conway, the presentation of the material is the main object, this being supplemented by a brief outline of the grammar. His work is epigraphical rather than grammatical. The customary epigraphical data, such as size, provenance, form of alphabet, etc., are given with the greatest fulness, combined with other pertinent archæological observations; witness the elaborate discussion of the somewhat mysterious *iovilae* dedications from Old Capua, or the minute measurements of the *mensa ponderaria* of Pompeii. Clearly no pains have been spared to make the external evidence absolutely complete, and in this lies one of the chief merits of the book. The new collation of the inscriptions has naturally produced a number of minor changes in the texts, but it cannot be said that there are many startling results. Scarcely any new words have been brought to light and few old friends have disappeared, though Von Planta has decided that the oft-quoted *úiuvesim* of a Capuan inscription must be given up. A discovery made by both Conway and Von Planta in regard to a short inscription running around the neck of a small column (Conway No. 176) has yielded a neat result.

In addition to the inscriptions, including coin legends, our author has given us the

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dialect glosses, and also lists of the geographical and personal names belonging to the different parts of ancient Italy, supplemented by such modern names of places as might possibly be of ancient origin. All this material is carefully assorted. Glosses which can be assigned with certainty are distinguished from those of more doubtful provenance. The lists of personal names are classified according to frequency, and other distinctions are made apparent by various typographical devices. Collections of Italic glosses have been made before, but in the classified name-lists we have a body of material now first made accessible. Its value, indeed, is only subsidiary, but scholars may well be thankful to the author for the stupendous labor which has made it available for what it is worth.

The arrangement of the book is geographical. Brief introductions to the various sections furnish concise historical data pertaining to the several tribes or to the individual towns. The author rightly feels that the records of the different tribes are not to be regarded merely as so much linguistic material for comparative philologists, much as these have done for the better understanding of them, but as important (for some periods and some regions almost the only) monuments of tribal history and civilization. How many who read in their Livy of Oscan-speaking spies sent into the Samnite camp realize that the language of the people that gave Rome her hardest battle for supremacy in Italy is not entirely unknown to us?

The classification of the dialects is unusual in two points, one being only a matter of nomenclature, the other involving a more serious question. The inscriptions of the Paeligni, Marrucini, and Vestini are classed as North Oscan instead of Sabellian, the ordinary designation. It is certainly well to emphasize the close relationship of these dialects, especially the Paelignian, of which we know most, with the Oscan. Strictly speaking, the Samnites are Sabellians, and their language, the Oscan, a Sabellian dialect or set of dialects. But the course of history has won an independent position for both people and language, and it is questionable if it is not better to adhere to the classical use of Oscan. The other departure from orthodoxy consists in ranging the dialects of the Marsi, Aequi, and Sabini under the Latin-Faliscan, or, to adopt the author's more convenient title, the Latinian group. Professor Conway has on another occasion intimated his belief that these dialects did not belong to the Oscan-Umbrian group, and one is disappointed not to find a fuller discussion of the matter here. It is true that the scanty material we have shows no marked Oscan-Umbrian characteristics; but, in view of the fact that these dialects were among the very first to fall under Latin influence, this evidence is hardly adequate. It will certainly appear to many that the traditional connection of these tribes with the Sabellian group should be allowed some weight until more and older material is at hand to establish the true character of the dialects.

Part ii., printed in a separate volume, contains a brief outline of the grammar of the dialects, followed by full indices of the local and gentile names and a glossary of the dialects. If one might be permitted to wish for more where so much has been given, it would be in the direction of another appendix similar to that in Robert's 'Greek Epigraphy,' with commentaries on some of the longer inscriptions. To be sure, the glossary indicates the author's interpretation of individual words and occasionally of phrases, but any one who has struggled with the divergent views on many difficult passages would gladly learn what conclusion the author himself has reached, even where he would simply confirm one's own *non liquet*.

The mechanical execution of the book is everything that could be desired, and all scholars should subscribe to the thanks rendered in the preface to the Syndics of the Cambridge University Press for their liberality. 'The Italic Dialects' is not only an indispensable piece of apparatus to the linguistic student, but of the highest value to every historian and classicist whose interest in ancient Italy is not confined to Rome. As stated above, the collection of material which Professor Conway offers us is incomplete. Let us hope that it will not long remain so. It does not seem likely that the soil of Umbria will yield much, but Oscan inscriptions are turning up nearly every year, either from the excavations at Pompeii or Capua, or as the result of some accidental find in Samnium. Systematic excavations, if made possible, would unquestionably meet with considerable success, and their importance can be realized only when we remember that Oscan is the Gothic of the Italic dialects. An Oscan inscription of fair extent may do more for the solution of problems of historical Latin grammar than years of work in the study.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Audubon, Maria R. Audubon and His Journals. 2 vols. Scribners. $7.50.
Babyhood. Vol. XIII. December, 1896—November, 1897. Babyhood Publishing Co.
Balfour, Andrew. By Stroke of Sword. New York: Truslove & Comba. $1.25.
Barton, W. E. The Truth about the Trouble at Roundstone. Boston: Pilgrim Press. 50c.
Biddle, A. J. D. Shantytown Sketches. The Second Froggy Fairy Book. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle.
De Leon, T. C. A Bachelor's Box. F. T. Neely.
Gould, E. S. High Masonry Dams. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50c.
Holyoake, G. J. The Jubilee History of the Leeds Industrial Coöperative Society. Leeds, Eng.: Central Coöperative Offices.
Humphrey, Mrs. Manners for Women. M. F. Mansfield. 50c.
Keeler, Mary A. Just a Summer Affair. F. T. Neely.
Lucas, E. V. A Book of Verses for Children. Henry Holt & Co. $2.
McCrady, Edward. The History of South Carolina under the Proprietary Government, 1670-1719. Macmillan. $3.50.
Miller, Fred. The Training of a Craftsman. New York: Truslove & Comba. $2.
Music for the Soul: Daily Readings for a Year from the Writings of the Rev. Alexander Maclaren. Armstrong. $1.50.
Nietzsche, Freidrich. A Genealogy of Morals. Macmillan.
Parmentier, A. Album Historique. Tome II. La Fin du Moyen Age. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Rands, W. B. Lilliput Lectures. New York: M. F. Mansfield. $1.25.
Schulz, Alfred. Geschichts-Atlas. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Shufeldt, Dr. R. W. Chapters on the Natural History of the United States. New York: Studer Bros.
The King's Daughter and the King's Son: A Fairy Tale of To-day. Fowler & Wells Co. 75c.
The Library of Congress. Providence, R. I.: Dart & Bigelow. $1.
Thayer, Emma H. Petronilla the Sister. F. T. Neely.
Vincent, Prof. G. E. The Social Mind and Education. Macmillan. $1.20.

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